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ABSTRACT

Papers are presented which offer a detailed perspective of the changing state of institutions in the non-university sector in Japan. They are the product of three research projects. The projects were: a group study on the short-cycle higher education; a United States-Japan cooperative study on education; and from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development/Centre for Educational Research and Innovation a project on alternatives to university education. Nine papers are as follows: (1) "Introduction: The Present Status of Higher Education" (R. Kuroha and K. Kitamura); (2) "Quantitative Transitions in the Postsecondary Education System" (M. Iwanaga); (3) "The Structure of the Postsecondary Education System" (K. Kitamura); (4) "The Content of Education in the Non-University Sector" (A. Tachi); (5) "Organizational Patterns of Various Institutions in the Non-University Sector (A.Tachi); (6) "Finance and Administration in the Non-University Sector" (M. Iwanaga); (7) "The Employment of Graduates from Non-University Sector Institutions" (A. Oe); (8) "Socio-Economic Role of the Non-University Sector" (I. Amano); and (9) "Summary and Prospects" (Y. Abe). (SM)

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NON-UNIVERSITY SECTOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN JAPAN

Edited by Yoshiya Abe

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PREFACE

The papaers included in this volume present a detailed perspective of the changing state of institutions in the Non-University Sector(NUS) in Japan. The reports are the product of three research projects in which each of the authors participated under the initiative and leadership of Mr. Isao Amagi. The first was a group study on short-cycle higher education which we conducted under the sponsorship of NIRA. The second was a US-JAPAN cooperative study on education under the auspices of CULCON. The third was an OECD/CERI project on alternatives to university education. Indeed the texts herein presented formed the main body of the Country Paper submitted to OECD/CERI in 1988 as an internal report, without crediting the original authors. I have taken the liberty of editing the original texts, even to the extent of changing the context and substantially revising the conclusion in order to maintain the integrity of the report as a whole. For this reason I must acknowledge my responsibility and apologize to the original authors, especially Prof. Ikuo Amano, Ryoichi Kuroha and Kazuyuki Kitamura.

Our study on short-cycle higher education was initiated in view of the growing need for post-secondary education caused by several factors: the rapid development of science and techonology, which has impact on the adult population in their working life, the challenge posed by the decline of demographic trends, affecting the younger generation, which is compounded by the increasing availability of human and physical resources at lower and middle levels of education, and finally, of the policy perspectives which may meet these needs and counter these challenges.

The members of the study group had engaged themselves in two study projects; the first a study of NUS institutions in the US and the second, the US-JAPAN cooperative study of American secondary education, college education and the system of connections between them. Prof. Ikuo Amano played the key role in the education of the Japanese report, in cooperation with Mr. Isao Amagi.

When the OECD/CERI project on alternatives to university education in Japan's higher education system was proposed, the group which had cooperated in the above mentioned studies, appeared to be well equipped to handle the issue. Thus I participated in the preparatory seminar held in Paris in 1985 and in the discussion which defined the research agenda. Having been assigned to organize a country report concerning the issue on behalf of Japan. I was fortunate to have the cooperation of these authors whose papers follow hereafter.

Both in terms of financial and human resources, elementary education in Japan has been promoted by the public sector; 99.4 percent of the pupils in elementary education attend public schools. At the secondary level, for the latter half in particular, the private sector begins to play a more significant role; 96.9 percent of the junior high school students and 71.9 percent of the senior high school students attend public schools. In marked contrast, at four year colleges and universities the mass, or 72.4 percent of the student body attends private institutions. In this general pattern of private and public sectors of education, the key short-cycle higher education institutions, nemely junior colleges and special training schools (Senshu Gakko: SG) are almost completely operated by the private sector, 90.8 percent of junior colleges students and 91.6 percent of SG students attend private institutions. It is a crucial question for policy to determine whether or not this is a desirable pattern and if it represent a lack of effort from the public sector.

Of significant interest are the trends in SG and Kakushu Gakko (KG). The stunning 13-15 job offers per graduate at SGs should draw attention to these high powered institutions. KGs, which are very responsive to changes in the job merket, are a potentially dynamic source of self-improvement for members of heretofore disadvantage sectors. The oprimism of such institutions is dynamic. Formerly discouraged students find that they can create their own opportunities with their own hands, as it were. This trend is profoundly exciting, and will prove to be more so in the future, for KG, due to the flexibility of their programs, are freer than any other type new techonology and service needs.

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the Research Institute for Higher Education (R.I.H.E.) at Hiroshima University for publishing these papers, to the contributors for their efforts and time to contribute to this volume, and to the OECD partners who created the opportunity for us to undertake this important research. I also look forward to deepening understanding of these very promising developments from international and comparative perspectives.

Yoshiya ABE

Director, Research and Development
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of Multimedia Education

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION:
The Present Status of Higher Education

Ryo-Ichi KUROHA[1] and Kazuyuki KITAMURA[2]

1.The Development and Present Status

The University Sector

Universities are defined as institutions which offer educational courses of four years or more to those who meet the admissions requirements and are at least 18 years old.

The University Sector expanded greatly in the early 1960s. Its development slowed, however, during the period from the latter half of the 1960s to the mid-1980s. This is because a 1975 policy calling for restraint in the expansion of the University Sector worked so effectively. However, in about 1985 the Ministry of Education began to relax its policy of restraint in the University Sector, as a means of coping with an anticipated increase in the population of

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18-year-olds, an increase which is expected to peak in 1991-92. This relaxation sparked movements within private universities, including the establishment of new universities, an increase in the number of departments within established universities, and an increase in the number of students admitted each year.

The Non-University Sector (NUS)

In this section of the document, consideration is given to institutions which offer educational courses normally requiring full-time attendance for two years for completion. As with universities, students must be at least 18-year-old in order to be admitted to NUS schools. NUS institutions include junior colleges, the last two years of Koto Senmon Gakko; technical colleges, and Senshu Gakko (SG); special training schools. From the 1960s to the first half of the 1970s, junior colleges developed rapidly, primarily because they offered higher education opportunities to women.

The NUS includes technical colleges. These schools offer specialized education for five years, from the age of 15 (the age at which one may enter a senior high school) until the age of 20 (the age at which one may graduate from a junior college).

Technical colleges were established in 1962 following an amendment to the National School Foundation Act in 1961. Only two courses of study are provided by these schools, a technology course and a merchant marine course. This system remains unchanged today. There are 62 technical colleges throughout the country. However, since these schools are generally small, the annual intake totals only about ten thousand. Technical colleges provide very high quality training in highly marketable subjects, and may correspond to the Polytechnics in the United Kingdom.

From 1976 onward, SG have experienced rapid growth, while the growth in junior colleges slowed at the beginning of the 1970s. Among the various types of SG, those which have developed to a particularly remarkable extent are those providing students with professional training in such fields as technology, design, medical treatment (paramedical science and nursing), accounting and business (computer science), and foreign languages. A look at the enrollment statistics of the SG shows that, although female students outnumber male students, the total number of male students is large in contrast with the number of males in junior colleges. SG thus play an important role as educational institutions which provide students with occupational skills.

The Third Sector

In addition to those schools which fall under the School Education Act, education which can be termed postsecondary or tertiary is widely provided for in the following four forms. First, there are a number of Kakushu Gakko (KG); miscellaneous schools, which provide their students, mainly young people, with vocational and practical courses in dressmaking, cooking, typing, bookkeeping, photography, etc. Most courses in KG require for admission the completion of lower secondary schooling, while some courses require the completion of upper secondary schooling. Also in this category are numbers of Yobiko; preparatory schools which prepare high school graduates to take university entrance examinations. In a sense, Yobiko have the function of offering remedial courses for prospective university students. Secondly, there are institutions called Daigakko; colleges or academies, which fall under the jurisdiction of Ministries and Agencies other than the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. These academies or colleges are quite similar to universities or junior colleges. The Defense Academy, which trains executive self-defense officers, corresponds to the Army Academy (West Point), or the Naval Academy (Annapolis) in the U.S.A. The Vocational Training College, which is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labor, trains teachers for vocational training schools which, in turn, provide education at the level of secondary education. Other examples of such academies or colleges include the Meteorological College for training meteorological officials and the Maritime Safety Academy for training executive officers of the Maritime Safety Agency. Both of these schools fall under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Transport.

The curriculum of some of such academies and colleges is similar to those of university departments of science or technology, and graduates of these academies or colleges are qualified to take entrance examinations to university graduate schools. But such colleges and academies do not currently award such academic degrees as Bachelors of Science or Bachelors of Technology.

Vocational education and training institutions make up the third group of schools in the Third Sector. These institutions are classified into two categories: i) lifelong education and training for members of certain organizations such as companies (closed education and training); and ii) education and training for people in general (open education and training). The education and training provided in the first category includes special

programs of study to particular members of an organization. Since the beginning of the 1960s, private training programs of various kinds have become more common, and activity in this area increases each year. Education and training in this open education category, however, has not been widely prevalent, while the closed education system has been popular in Japan. Thus the National Council on Educational Reform proposed the strengthening of the open educational system.

The fourth and final category within the Third Sector is adult education. Although this form of education rarely leads directly to marketable qualifications or professional skills, it provides a more cultivated and meaningful life for individuals, and a more stable and mature society. Adult education is classified roughly into the following categories: i) social education programs provided by public organizations such as prefectures and municipalities, some of which date from 1910; and ii) programs provided by private companies engaged in businesses related to education, commonly called "culture businesses." Programs in the former category are basically free of charge, while those in the latter category are not.

2. Causes of The Expansion of Higher Education

History of Growth

At the beginning of the 20th century, the Japanese economic structure was far less developed and smaller in scale than that of west European countries and the United States. From that time to the present, however, modernization has progressed rapidly in Japan. As a result, according to certain statistics, with the exception of two periods, one during the Second World War and the other immediately following it, the annual growth rate of the Japanese economy has consistently been higher than that of Europe or the U.S. During the 25 year period from 1953 through 1978, the annual growth rate of the Japanese economy averaged 8.6%; the average annual growth rate during the period from 1960 to 1970 was as high as 10.8%. The expansion of education in Japan paralleled this period of intense economic growth.

The relationship between economic growth and educational growth is not simple, however, and an understanding of several factors which are characteristic of Japan can help explain the complex relationship.

Three factors of Expansion

The first factor which led to an expansion of education in Japan was the fact that Japan's modernized and highly developed industry demanded persons with a level of knowledge and skills which could only be reached after completion of secondary and higher education.

Regardless of how enthusiastically the government began preparing an educational expansion program, it could not have succeeded if an adequate response had not been obtained from the people. However, the Japanese people's enthusiasm for education was so great that it propelled the expansion of education to an extent exceeding the program the government had made. This positive response from the general population was the second factor leading to the expansion of education in Japan.

The third factor lies in the fact that higher education in Japan relies greatly on private schools. In contrast to European countries, where most private schools were founded by religious groups, Japan's post-war private schools were founded by educators who were engaged in education as a business.

In the three years from 1965 to 1967 the number of 18-years-olds (and thus the group who were born immediately after the Second World War) admitted to universities or junior colleges increased by a total of about 150,000. The number of students admitted in 1964 totaled 240,000, an increase of more than 50 percent in the three-year period. Since the increases in the number of new admissions to national and local schools were very small, the number of students admitted to private universities and junior colleges accounted for nearly 80% of all the students in universities and junior colleges during this period.

At that time, the current system -- whereby 20% of the cost of managing a private university or junior college is covered by a national subsidy (excluding the costs of founding such a school) -- did not exist. Also, in contrast to private schools in the U.S.A., private schools in Japan are not well endowed with large funds. In Japan, private schools are operated mostly with student fees. Thus, the Japanese people, who are anxious to give an education to their children, bear most of the expenses of running private schools, and the educationists, who are eager to provide the education, use this money to carry on the business of offering education.

3. Epoch-Making Diversification of Postsecondary Education

It can be said that the continuing expansion and diversification of Japanese higher education is as significant a change as the Humboldt Reformation at the end of the 19th century, establishing the academic function of universities. Socio-economic changes in the 1970s and 1980s contributed to the diversification of postsecondary education in Japan. A suitable illustration of this comes from computer education in NUS. As indicated by an OECD investigation, computer education provided by elementary schools in Japan is much inferior to that in other developed countries, in terms of both the number of computers used and the level of development of software for education. However, computer education for training office clerks, particularly female office clerks, with the knowledge and skills which match the current stage of office automation, has been highly developed.

SG, which are a major developing part of the NUS in Japan, provide many courses in this field. Thanks to their legal status, which allows them to create new educational courses in response to demands both from employers and potential students in a more flexible way than traditional universities, SG have succeeded in offering practical training for computer operations. To compete with the development of computer education in SG, most junior colleges, another part of the NUS in Japan, have also begun providing computer education. These days, all courses of study in junior colleges, including literature and domestic science, have been equipped with 50 or 100 computer terminals, so that students can learn the basics of computer operation. Thus, the computer education provided by SG and junior colleges in Japan is not inferior, in terms of quality, to that offered by the NUS in other countries, such as community and junior colleges in the U.S. or the IUT in France. In fact, in some cases, it is even superior in terms of quantity. In addition, in contrast to countries such as the U.S. and France where the central and local governments give considerable financial support to computer education, most of the schools and junior colleges in Japan provide the education based on the tuition of the students who are supposed to benefit directly from it. This type of technological education is developing rapidly in Japan in private NUS schools.

Because such forms of postsecondary education as SG and junior colleges require fewer years to complete than universities, educational costs are less than in the traditional universities. That is, the shorter education requires less

tuition and fees and less public investment. Although the amount of tuition and fees paid by a junior college student each year is not always lower than that paid by a student at a 4-year university, a junior college student has to pay for only 2 years. Also, the average tuition paid by a SG student is slightly smaller than that paid by a junior college student, although there are some exceptions (e.g. students in SG for licensed professionals, such as for dental hygienists or dental technicians). Shorter forms of higher education are also less expensive in terms of public investment. Public investment in the NUS is, in fact, very small in Japan. Like private universities, private junior colleges receive financial support from the government for a portion of their operating expenditures. However, the total amount of national financial support is about 30 billion yen each year, which amounts to only about 75,000 yen per junior college student. Each student pays more than five times this amount. The total amount of national support for all of SG is only about 2 billion yen each year, and no financial support is provided for the operating expenditures of these schools. The only support provided by the government to these schools is in the form of scholarship loans offered to a very small number of students and support for faculty research.

About 90% of all junior colleges are private, and the percentage is even higher in the case of SG. Technical colleges are the only NUS category in which more than 90 percent are national and local public. By relying on private schools, the government does not have to spend much public funds to develop new fields of learning such as computer education.

4. Establishment of Non-traditional Postsecondary Institutions through the First Half of the 1970s

The difference in type of education between the University Sector and the NUS (Non-University Sector) existed prior to World War II; under the prewar system, higher educational institutions were divided into universities, which required about six years of study after completion of upper secondary education, and higher colleges (Senmon Gakko), which required only about three years of study. Students in higher colleges outnumbered students in universities. The curriculum provided by the higher colleges largely omitted the study of foreign languages and subjects pertaining to general education.

The "6-3-3-4 Educational System" established after the war inaugurated a 4-

year course for all institutions of higher education; junior colleges were at first established provisionally.

In November 1951, the Advisory Committee on Reform of Ordinances (a provisional advisory body that reports to the Prime Minister), which had been re-examining various ordinances issued during the occupation years, submitted a report on the improvement of the higher education system, stating that the junior college system should be abolished and a new college system should be established. The government paid serious attention to this report and introduced legislative bills to reform the School Education Act to the Diet three times, beginning in 1957, with a view to establishing Senka Daigaku; "specialist colleges". However, the bills met with strong opposition from parties concerned with junior colleges and were withdrawn. In 1961, finally, 5-year technical colleges designed on a concept similar to specialist colleges were established; in the following year, the School Education Act was amended to change the status of the junior college system from provisional to permanent. In this way, the classification of schools for higher education into universities, junior colleges, and technical colleges was completed in the first half of the 1960s.

The development of SG grew out of different interest groups from regular schools fully authorized by the School Education Act. Predecessors to most of SG which exist at present were KG; miscellaneous schools. The term "Kakushu; miscellaneous" was already in use by the beginning of the Meiji era. Certain KG also played a part in the establishment of such fields of postsecondary training as dentistry and nutrition before World War II. For a brief time after the end of the war, KG were described by the Miscellaneous Rules of the School Education Act as schools "which offer education similar to formal school education." However, in the 1960s, movements were organized calling for more detailed guidelines and for increased support of KG, which had seen growth in terms of both the number of schools and the number of students. During the three years following 1967, the government introduced to the Diet a legislative bill with the same content as the prescriptions concerning SG. At that time, however, the government failed to win passage of the legislation, not because of opposition to the bill, per se, but because of factors concerning the agenda in the Diet. Beginning in 1972, members of the ruling Liberal Democratic Party who were in favor of the amendment introduced it to the Diet. The Diet finally approved the amendment in 1975, and it was put into effect in the following year.

5. Present Status of The Three Sectors

At the present time, almost all children in Japan receive compulsory education until they become 15 years of age, and 94% of all 15-year-olds enter high school. Although a small percentage of students leave high school without finishing the entire course, nine out of ten 18-year-olds graduate from high school each year.

Many of these high school graduates will continue their academic career by entering the University Sector or the NUS. The following statistics present a look at the 1987 high school graduates' educational and employment activity.

In 1987, there were a total of 1,882,400 18-year-olds in the Japanese school system, and 1,654,400, or 87.7% of them, graduated from high school. The following table illustrates both the educational and the employment choices made by these high school graduates in the spring of 1987:

	Number (thousands)	Ratio to All Graduates
Those who:		
found employment	589	35.6%
entered universities	306	18.5%
entered junior colleges	201	12.2%
entered SG	219	13.3%
entered KG	180	10.9%
did not enter any	101	6.1%

Every year in Japan, some of the graduates from high school become "ronin," students who, after having failed to enter the school of their choice, choose to wait another year for the entrance examination without seeking employment or entering an alternate school of postsecondary education. While some of these students continue studying at home, most of them go to Yobiko; preparatory schools. Preparatory schools are classified as either SG or KG according to the conditions under which they were first authorized.

The above table shows that the total number of students who entered junior colleges or SG, that is, those who entered NUS schools, is greater than the total number of students who entered universities. This figure would seem to indicate that the NUS is in an active condition. However, it cannot be concluded from this fact alone that the status of the NUS is positively stable. It should be noted that the condition expressed in these statistics is directly affected by two different tendencies: one is that it is becoming increasingly

difficult every year for high school graduates to find employment, and the other is that it is becoming increasingly difficult every year for them to enter schools in the University Sector. Some students may be entering schools in the NUS with some reluctance.

As regards the first tendency, manufacturers, who used to employ a great number of high school graduates, require far fewer workers because of automatization and the development of robots. Non-manufacturing industries employ about 80% of the graduates from all schools each year. Most of these employees are placed in such service-related positions as business and sales. Because this type of work requires the ability to handle personal relationships, and hence a fairly high level of maturity, people graduating from university are found to be more appropriate for such jobs than younger high school graduates.

As a result, the annual ratio of the number of jobs available to students graduating from high school and hoping to get employment is decreasing every year. In the spring of 1987, positions for the 589,000 high school graduates were barely secured. In the autumn of 1987, the parties concerned were worried because the total number of job offers currently available was only about 520,000 although the total number of students who would be graduating from high school in spring 1988 and seeking employment was similar to that of the previous year.

In Japan, when one has difficulty finding employment upon graduation from high school, there is a tendency to attempt to enter schools of postsecondary education before becoming finally employed. This seems to be the primary explanation for increases in the number of entrants to schools in the NUS, particularly to SG.

As for the second tendency, the university entrance rate (calculated by dividing the total number of entrants to universities and junior colleges by the total number of applicants) was 70% or above each year from 1970 to 1982. However, this percentage has been decreasing every year since 1982 and, in 1987, it dropped to about 66%. These statistics show that it has become increasingly difficult to enter a university. Those who are not admitted sometimes choose to become "ronin" or enter, reluctantly, other schools such as SG.

It appears that this second trend will continue through 1991-92 when the increase in 18-year-olds is expected to peak, and that both the University Sector and the NUS will continue to be in a stable condition through that time.

It is anticipated that the number of 18-year-olds will begin to decrease after the 1991-1992 peak, and that because of low birth rates in recent years this decrease will continue for more than twenty years. If this is the case, such trends as those mentioned above will continue and intensify during these years, and the University Sector should maintain its stable condition. The NUS is also expected to remain stable for the time being because of the fact that high school graduates are having more and more difficulty finding employment or university places.

Chapter 2

QUANTITATIVE TRANSITIONS IN THE POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION SYSTEM

Masaya IWANAGA[3]

The expansion of the postsecondary education has been under strict control as regards the University Sector, but it was less so in the NUS. The University Sector in Japan was made up of 201 4-year universities in 1950, immediately after their inauguration. (See Table 1) Fifteen years later the number exceeded 300, and it had more than doubled to about 450 by the early 1980s. However, after 1975, the increase was in pause until quite recently. The trend toward an increase in the number of schools started to show itself again, due to the fact that a large number of new educational foundations and other organizations have entered the field of university management in anticipation of the peak in the number of 18-year-olds which is projected to occur in 1992. On the other hand, in the NUS, the number of junior colleges was 140 at the time of their inauguration in 1950, a smaller number than that for 4-year universities. By 5 years later, however, the number of junior colleges had already greatly exceeded that of 4-year universities, and increased to more than 500 by 1975. Subsequently, a slowdown in the rate of increase set in, as in the case of universities, but again similarly, the trend to increase has once againbecome

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Table 1
Transitions in Number of Postsecondary Educational Institutions

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1950	201	149	-	-	4,190
1955	228	264	-	-	7,305
1960	245	280	-	-	8,089
1965	317	369	54	-	7,956
1970	382	479	60	-	8,011
1975	420	513	65	-	7,956
1976	423	511	65	893	7,000
1977	431	515	65	1,941	6,094
1978	433	519	64	2,253	5,737
1979	443	518	62	2,387	5,508
1980	446	517	62	2,520	5,302
1981	451	523	62	2,745	5,027
1982	455	526	62	2,804	4,867
1983	457	532	62	2,860	4,674
1984	460	536	62	2,936	4,474
1985	460	543	62	3,015	4,300
1986	465	548	62	3,088	4,124
1987	474	561	62	3,152	3,918

Note: "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1950-1987

apparent more recently.

In contrast, the number of technical colleges has scarcely varied since their inception in 1962. There are a conspicuously large number of SG, but in the 1980s, the rate of increase in the number of these institutions has leveled off.

KG, which occupy an important position as the Third Sector of the post-secondary education system, represent the most numerous category throughout the 40 years since World War II. However, as can be seen from the comparison of the numbers of students made later, many of these KG are managed on a small-scale basis. In addition, many institutions changed their role as KG; "miscellaneous schools" to SG after the legislation for SG was enacted in 1976, and the number of KG thus shows an apparent tendency to decline. Table 2 shows the enrollment trends for each type of school.

The number of students enrolled in 4-year courses indicates the same tendency to increase and decrease as the number of schools, and has remained stagnant since 1975. After the peak in 1978, the restraining policy of 1975 began to show its effect and the number of students in 4-year universities and junior colleges slowly declined. In the other school categories, trends in the number of students generally show a parallel relationship with those for the total numbers of schools. The increase in the number of SG is conspicuous,

Table 2
Numbers of Students Enrolled in Post-Secondary Institutions

Year	4-year universities 1)	Junior colleges 2)	Technical colleges 3)	SG 4)	KG
1950	224,734	15,098	- 5)	-	486,609
1955	513,181	77,885	-	-	958,292
1960	601,464	83,475	-	-	1,239,621
1965	895,465	147,563	5,552	-	1,383,712
1970	1,344,358	263,219	17,726	-	1,352,686
1975	1,652,003	353,782	19,182	-	1,205,318
1976	1,739,930	364,880	18,822	90,619	1,087,137
1977	1,786,112	374,244	18,705	268,990	870,103
1978	1,808,995	380,299	18,654	310,800	781,031
1979	1,793,124	373,996	18,475	321,379	770,959
1980	1,741,504	371,124	18,539	337,864	724,401
1981	1,725,814	372,406	18,587	356,479	659,967
1982	1,716,956	374,273	18,764	361,937	627,688
1983	1,729,632	379,425	18,898	385,911	605,944
1984	1,734,080	381,873	19,011	404,153	579,274
1985	1,734,392	371,095	19,315	398,821	530,159
1986	1,758,635	396,455	19,670	434,489	483,283
1987	1,806,027	437,643	20,031	483,243	466,063

Notes 1) Numbers of undergraduate students (full-time) alone
2) Numbers of regular-course students (full-time) alone
3) Numbers of fourth- and fifth-year students (15 to 17 years old) alone
4) Numbers of students in courses which recognize graduation from upper secondary schools as qualification for admission
5) "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1950-1987

because the other educational institutions have decreased in number or have shown a slowdown in the tendency to proliferate. The scale of a typical school in each category (average number of students enrolled) can be understood from Tables 1 and 2. The average number of freshman students enrolled as of May 1, 1987 was 3,810 for each 4-year university, 780 for each junior college, 323 for each technical college (in the upper division only), and 153 for each SG (the number of students who belong solely to courses requiring graduation from upper secondary schools as an entry requirement), and 119 for each KG.

One feature of the Japanese postsecondary education system, the high degree of dependency upon private institutions, is reflected in the figures that express the ratio of the number of students enrolled in private institutions to the total number of students (See Table 3). In 4-year universities, this ratio has been at about 3/4 for 15 years. In the NUS, 90% or more of the students are enrolled in private institutions. In the case of KG, the percentage of students enrolled in public institutions does not even reach 2%. In technical

Table 3
Percentages of Students Enrolled in Private Institutions
(by Type of School: %)

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1972	77.6	90.7	16.3	-	97.9
1974	76.4	91.1	14.7	-	97.7
1976	76.3	91.2	9.9	91.4	97.9
1978	76.2	91.3	7.5	90.8	97.9
1980	75.0	90.9	6.7	90.4	98.2
1982	73.7	90.3	6.8	90.1	98.2
1984	73.1	90.1	7.1	90.2	98.3
1986	72.5	90.1	7.0	90.7	98.1

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1972-1986

colleges, however, the percentage occupied by private institutions is low.

Next, the make-up of the students in each type of school is reviewed in terms of attributes. A breakdown in terms of the sex of students is greatly different from one kind of institution to another. Before World War II, the great majority of universities did not open their doors to women. Thus the roots of many junior colleges created after World War II traditionally lay in providing for female students special or additional upper secondary school courses of the kind established before the War. Moreover, it was generally accepted for a long time that 4-year universities and junior colleges are suited to educate men and women separately. This tradition lies in the background of the current situation in which 3/4 of 4-year university students are male while 90% of junior-college students are female. However, it seems that the situation has slightly changed over the past 15 years. In 4-year universities, the ratio of female students to the total has gradually increased from 1/5 to 1/4. In junior colleges as well, the ratio occupied by female students has increased progressively.

The extremely low proportion of female students attending technical colleges reflects the generally accepted idea that higher technical education is aimed at male students. However, the number of female students who proceed to technical colleges has recently reached a level three to four times higher than at the time of their inauguration. This may be attributed to the fact that the quality of skill required of the female labor force has changed with the

development of "office automation". In contrast, in SG, the percentage of male students has been increasing each year and is now comparable to the percentage of female students. This indicates that the importance of technical education has gradually increased and that their social standing has improved.

Needless to say, age is important in considering the attributes of students. In Japan, almost all students enter universities or junior colleges within the 3-year period following graduation from high schools. Therefore, 90% or more of the students enrolled in universities and junior colleges are 25 years old or less, and students over 30 years old are extremely few in number. Since this

Table 4
Proportions of Women among all Students Enrolled
(by Type of School: %)

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1972	19.0	84.2	1.4	-	66.7
1974	20.7	85.5	1.5	-	64.2
1976	21.7	87.0	1.6	79.4	59.2
1978	22.0	88.1	1.8	70.6	54.6
1980	22.1	89.0	2.0	66.5	52.5
1982	22.3	89.8	2.4	62.5	49.8
1984	23.1	89.9	3.2	59.1	48.0
1986	24.1	90.3	4.1	56.6	50.6

Note: "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1972-1986.

situation prevails at present, nationwide data on the ages of students has not yet been collected. This also applies to SG and KG. (See Table 4.)

Let us now look at the share occupied by each type of institution in the postsecondary education system, starting with percentages which represent the types of schools to which students proceed after leaving high school. Table B-5 shows that 4-year universities account for the largest share, equivalent to 18%, but the other types of schools represent about 12% in each case and hence account for substantially equal shares of the remaining part. A rough comparison based on this data shows that 1/5 of the graduates of high schools proceed to the University Sector, 1/4 to the NUS, and 1/9 to the Third Sector. In 1986 more than 50% of all students proceeded to some kind of post-secondary educational institution. Of these, only the share accounted for by SG

Table 5
Shares of the Schools to which
Graduates of Upper Secondary Schools Proceed
(by type of school: %)

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	SG	KG
1972	18.7	8.9	- 1)	... 2)
1974	20.9	10.9	-	...
1976	21.2	11.5	2.8	11.8
1978	20.6	11.9	6.8	10.4
1980	19.8	11.8	8.6	11.2
1982	19.0	11.6	10.0	11.4
1984	18.0	11.3	11.6	12.4
1986	18.0	12.0	12.1	11.7

Notes 1) "-"; before inauguration
2) "..."; no data
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1972-1986

is rapidly increasing at present.

The total number of students who graduated from postsecondary educational institutions in fiscal 1986 amounts to about 1.5 million. As seen in Table 6, a conspicuously large number of students graduated from KG which provide various short-term courses, but this number has shown a tendency to decrease since 1976. The number of graduates of 4-year universities, about 376,000, is

Table 6
Numbers of Graduates of Various Types of Postsecondary Institution

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1974	300,135	130,786	8,100	-	995,907
1976	326,167	150,863	8,578	-	1,110,893
1978	356,981	162,626	8,137	177,465	924,010
1980	378,666	169,930	7,951	202,738	895,973
1982	382,466	167,170	7,930	231,075	814,901
1984	372,247	170,041	8,133	247,882	799,522
1986	376,260	171,845	8,293	264,961	692,395

Note: "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1974-1986

the second largest figure. This number has hardly varied since 1980. The number of graduates of junior colleges is slightly less than half that of universities, and this ratio has also remained substantially constant since 1980. Only the number of graduates of SG continues to increase steadily.

Let us now look at the teaching staff and costs of each type of educational institution. Table 7 shows the number of full-time faculty members in each type of educational institution. It will be observed that the number of teachers in 4-year universities has steadily increased irrespective of the slowdown in the increase of the total number of students, that the number of teachers in junior colleges and technical colleges has not changed greatly, that the number of teachers in SG has increased as the number of students increase; and that the

Table 7
Numbers of Teachers of Various Types of Postsecondary Institutions

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1972	80,959	14,677	3,513	-	47,266
1974	86,576	15,169	3,652	-	45,570
1976	92,929	15,769	3,711	4,499	38,160
1978	98,173	16,027	3,734	13,614	27,936
1980	102,989	16,372	3,721	15,479	26,478
1982	107,422	16,866	3,751	17,154	24,083
1984	110,662	17,411	3,772	18,271	22,731
1986	113,872	18,119	3,797	19,851	21,071

Note: "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1972-1986

total number of teachers employed in KG shows a tendency to decrease.

For each category of postsecondary educational institution, the number of full-time students was divided by the number of teachers, and the number of students per teacher was thus calculated. Table 8 shows the results obtained. The figure of about 12 for technical colleges is the lowest and it will therefore be understood that students in this type of school receive an education that is most intensive. The figure for universities is about 15, the second lowest, and conspicuously decreases each year. However, there is a large difference between the figures for individual universities, depending upon whether their governing bodies are private or public. As of 1986, the number of students per teacher in national universities was 7.6 but in private universities the number

was 23.6, three times the figure for national universities. The figures for junior colleges and SG are substantially the same, while the figures for KG are slightly higher than those of junior colleges and SG. The figures for KG show a tendency to decrease each year. This may be attributed to the fact that a drastic curtailment in the number of teachers could not be effected immediately following the rapid decrease in the number of students, rather than to the

Table 8
Numbers of Students per Teacher (by type of school: students)

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1972	18.0	19.4	13.6	-	26.7
1974	18.3	21.5	13.3	-	26.6
1976	18.7	23.1	12.7	20.1	28.5
1978	18.4	23.7	12.5	22.8	28.0
1980	16.9	22.7	12.5	21.8	27.4
1982	16.0	22.2	12.5	21.1	26.1
1984	15.7	21.9	12.6	22.1	25.5
1986	15.4	21.9	13.0	21.9	22.9

Note: "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1972-1986

effects of a decision to improve in the quality of education.

Table 9
Educational Expenses per Student
(by type of school: in thousands of yen) [1]

Year	4-year universities	Junior colleges	Technical colleges	SG	KG
1971	788	520	1,008	- 2)	190
1973	874	604	1,122	-	214
1975	866	602	1,187	-	223
1977	907	635	1,289	385	238
1979	1,185	685	1,405	447	262
1981	1,137	759	1,328	474	269
1983	1,346	804	1,238	554	337
1985	1,433	971	1,254	636	385

Notes 1) All amounts calculated in terms of the level of prices prevailing in 1985
2) "-"; before inauguration
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1972-1986

Finally, let us look at educational costs per student for each category of educational institution. Table 9 shows the costs of education and general expenses per student, the costs represented with 1985 as a base by employing the consumer price index for each fiscal year. It will be observed that the educational costs in technical colleges are stable and at a high level. Until the early 1980s, educational costs for 4-year universities stood at a lower level than that for technical colleges, but in the past few years have exceeded them. It can therefore be said that in the 1980s there has been a qualitative improvement of education in universities. The figures for junior colleges and SG in the NUS are low compared with the universities and technical colleges. The figures for SG are half of those for technical colleges. Moreover, the level of costs per student in KG is half that for SG.

Chapter 3

THE STRUCTURE OF THE POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION SYSTEM

Kazuyuki KITAMURA

1. Historical Development of the Higher Education System

The Japanese higher educational institutions prior to World War II included imperial universities, local and private universities, higher schools, colleges, and higher normal schools. Each system had different sets of entrance requirements and different career perspectives. With the inauguration of the new university system in 1951, under the American Occupation, all the institutions of the prewar multi-track higher educational system were reorganized and integrated to form "universities" (this included junior colleges, which are also referred to as "universities" in this document). As a result of the reform, the "6-3-3-4 Educational System," which consists of 6-years of primary education, 3-years of lower secondary education, 3-years of upper secondary education, and 4-years of higher education, was established. Therefore, as a concept, higher education came to mean education in universities. That is to say, the basic idea of post-war educational reform relative to higher education was to have a single-track system with the same entrance requirements and with the same career perspective. However, as a transitional device to bridge the

gaps between the continuing reality and this new democratic ideal, junior colleges were allowed to exist temporarily as institutions that could not fulfill the requirements to become a university.

However, the once unambiguous concept that higher education means university education has undergone a gradual change during post-Occupation years. The higher educational system consisting of one uniform type of school (the university), which has a single format, the same standards, and similar functions and educational goals, confronted external demands calling for a more varied higher educational system with more types of schools. The subsequent birth of the "Non-University Sector," brought about by the establishment of the technical college system in 1962 and the SG system in 1975, substantially altered the idea of the post-war reform of higher education.

Today, the concept of the higher education system is understood to have a broader meaning than conventional university education. In 1976, the Koto Kyoiku Kondankai, the Council on Higher Education, which is a private advisory organ for the Minister of Education, Science and Culture, pointed out that "Senmon Daigaku," or professional schools (including advanced courses provided by SG) should be recognized as "a type of higher education." This definition better takes into account the variety of educational opportunities open to senior high school graduates, about a half of whom are enrolled in certain types of post secondary institutions including SG. As a result of an increase in the enrollment rate in high school, this new and broader concept of higher education has now been widely accepted in society.

2. From Higher Education to Postsecondary Education

Thus in the 1970s, higher education in Japan made a transition from a form focused on university educational institutions to a more multi-faceted, wide-ranging institutional form which now includes SG. Though this transition appears to be a small institutional modification, it has a large implication in terms of an ideological shift from a "single-track" system of higher education to a "multi-track" system of higher education which might be better understood as a "postsecondary education system."

This shift from "higher education" to "postsecondary education" was promoted by a series of political actions, including two education-related laws enacted in 1975, as well as related political and administrative measures. The "Shiritsu Gakko Shinko Josei Ho (the Law Concerning Support of Private

School Promotion)," including a partial amendment of the "Shiritsu Gakko Ho (Private School Act)," was one of the laws enacted. The other law called for the inauguration of SG system, which involved a partial amendment of the "Gakko Kyoiku Ho (School Education Act)" and de jure chartering of plausible postsecondary education institutions, most of which had so far been categorized as KG. The simultaneous enactment of these two politically significant bills greatly altered the Japanese higher educational system. First, the enactment of the "Law Concerning Support of Private School Promotion" provided legal guarantees and a legal basis for financial aid provided by the national government to private schools, and clarified the methods and conditions of subsidization. In other words, the intent of this law was to clarify the guarantees relating to financial aid provided by the national government to private schools. In so doing, it also restricted the overall enrollment size of private schools, subject to this financial aid, in order to control the unlimited expansion of the fiscal burden on the national government. The inclusion of the NUS in the scope of public support by this law indeed furnished an elevated status to the institutions of the NUS. Throughout the postwar period, neither the national government nor the Ministry exerted public policy initiatives to absorb most of the Japanese people's demands for an increase in higher education opportunities, with the exception of letting private institutions expand. The government continued a sort of laissez-faire policy or "no support, no control" until the mid-1970s. Then the national government and the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture came to consolidate legal power to exert higher education policy. This policy took shape in the Higher Education Plan, which was formulated with the slogan of "from quantitative expansion to qualitative improvement." The amendment of the School Education Act which established SG was the second major action affecting changes in the educational system in the 1970s. It is important that these two legislative actions were executed at the same time. The national government, partly reflecting the educational policies of the Liberal Democratic Party created in response to the Japanese people's increasing demand for the expansion of postsecondary education, made plans to provide the educational system with a new set of KG, designed for studying business practices and occupational skills. The legislation concerning SG was enacted for this purpose.

KG were not included in the "schools" category stipulated in Article 1 of the School Education Act, but were referred to simply as institutions providing an education similar to school education. Schools within this category which

met certain standards and conditions set by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture were now considered as SG according to this Law. Consequently, the SG system was given a new position in the school system.

Under the new system, SG are defined as educational institutions which have as their objective "to foster abilities necessary for professional or everyday life, or to improve the level of students' culture." To meet certification requirements, these SG must "provide organized education" to a minimum of 40 students for at least one year, with at least 800 lesson hours a year. Depending on the level of education, the courses offered by these schools are classified into advanced courses (for graduates of upper secondary schools), upper secondary courses (for graduates of lower secondary schools), and general courses (with no entrance requirements).

Although the newly-revised Act did not provide for any financial aid from the national government nor any special legal rights to SG; the revision did result in an enhancement of their social status to that of "non-university higher educational institutions." Educational administrators have traditionally regarded schools requiring completion of secondary education as a requirement for application (namely schools providing education on the basis of high school education) as "higher educational institutions". This conventional view of higher education led to considering SG as equivalent to other existing institutions, such as universities and junior colleges. It is not clear whether this series of changes was based on the systematic intention of the policy makers. Nevertheless, the stated policy goal at that time was to promote both the rectification of gaps in quality in higher education and its diversification. The rectification of the gaps among universities was accomplished by financial support for private schools, while the establishment of SG as new higher educational institutions aimed at the diversification of higher education. Thus, policies concerning postsecondary education during the second half of the 1970s were devised to maintain the university system substantially as it was while balancing various aims. Policies were initiated to check the expansion of private universities, to attain a qualitative improvement in the existing system of higher education, and to cope with personal and social demands for education which could not be absorbed by existing institutions. The establishment of such non-university educational institutions as SG helped meet these aims.

3. The Diversity of the "Postsecondary Education" System

In present-day Japan, a wide range of formats and types of opportunities for education are offered at the postsecondary education level. This level of education includes different elements of education such as formal school education, social education, and continuing education; and these elements are entwined in a complicated way. Educational courses and institutions having the characteristics of higher education and those having the characteristics of continuing education coexist.

The formats, levels, and types of opportunities for education, training, and study provided by post-secondary education are extremely diverse, and their functions are also remarkably varied. Accordingly, it is impossible to formulate an inclusive view embracing all the opportunities for education at the postsecondary education level.

Opportunities for postsecondary education in Japan are increasing as well. There are more kinds of educational institutions and programs than before, and their social functions are becoming increasingly varied. Today, when high school is already becoming the socially acceptable "national educational minimum," education after high school has become the recent focus of concern for the Japanese people. It is no longer possible to comprehensively embrace all the opportunities for education provided for post-secondary education within the conventional concept of higher education.

Chapter 4

THE CONTENT OF EDUCATION IN THE NON-UNIVERSITY SECTOR

Akira TACHI[4]

1. Content of Education Offered by the Non-University Sector

The major difference in the curriculum offered by universities and junior colleges and that offered by technical colleges and advanced courses in SG is found in general studies. The Humanities are always offered at universities and junior colleges. In 1986, 14.4 percent of the students in universities and 24.3 percent of the students in junior colleges majored in the Humanities. In contrast, technical colleges and SG provide more practical education; for example, SG offer training courses for interpreters and guides while Shakespeare and Wordsworth are taught at universities or junior colleges.
The Social Sciences are offered by universities and junior colleges, including Jurisprudence, Commercial Studies, and Business Administration. On the other hand, training in Commerce and Business Practice, including accounting, bookkeeping, typing, and secretarial courses, is mostly provided by SG. While industry-related and medical treatment-related students account for roughly one

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half of all the SG students, the number of students in the various areas of commerce and business represent the third largest sector (14.3%) of the enrollment of SG. Commerce and Business Practice is also taught in secretarial courses at junior colleges.

Engineering is offered at various kinds of institutions, but particularly noteworthy is that students in this field of study at technical colleges account for 95.3% of the total enrollment of those institutions. Students of engineering also comprise the second largest portion of the enrollment in both universities and SG, accounting for 19.9% and 23.9% of the totals, respectively. The junior college engineering enrollment is relatively low. Health Care, Domestic Science, Teacher Training, and Art are offered at universities, junior colleges, and SG. However, eligibility to apply for the National Examination for Medical Practitioners can be acquired only through courses offered by universities. Training for nursing and in the paramedical field is provided by NUI; non-university institutions.

The field of Domestic Science accounts for the highest percentage of students (26.1%) in junior colleges, and has the fourth largest enrollment in SG, where it accounts for 11.3% of the students. At 19.6% of the total, teacher training enrolls the third largest number of junior college students, after Domestic Science and the Humanities. In universities, Teacher Training enrolls the fourth largest percentage of students, at 7.8%. Hygiene is a field of study offered only by SG; courses for barbers and beauticians are included in this category. The Merchant Marine Course is offered only by universities and technical colleges.

2. Junior Colleges

In the curricula of junior colleges, general education is made compulsory as well as most of specialized subjects, and the credit system is adopted in calculating the subjects a student has taken, in the same way as universities. Thus, junior colleges have similarities with the University Sector. The fields of education offered by junior colleges are reflected in the make-up of their courses. Courses are the basic framework for implementation of the education and these courses may be broadly classified into eleven categories: the Humanities, Social Sciences, General Studies, Science, Engineering, Agriculture, Health Care, Domestic Science, Teacher Training, Art, and Secretarial courses. Generally, in junior colleges, curricula for each category are formed in such a

manner that students are able to acquire occupational licenses and certificates, awarded by governmental or private non-profit organizations in the relevant fields simultaneously with graduation from junior college. For instance, in Teacher Training courses, students are able to acquire teaching licenses for kindergarten, elementary school, and lower secondary school, while, in a Domestic Science-related Food and Nutrition course, qualifications for nutritionists can be acquired. In a Nursing course, one qualifies to apply for the National Examination for Nurses. In some courses, the acquisition of these occupational licenses and certificates is made a requirement of graduation.

Table 10
Changes in the Number of Courses of Junior Colleges and the Number of Students

	No. of Courses			No. of Students		
	1976	1987	Change	1976	1986 (%)	Change (%)
Humanities	249	281	+32	74,848 (20.8)	94,857 (24.3)	+20,009
Social sciences	122	139	+17	37,828 (10.5)	40,186 (10.3)	+2,358
General studies	22	28	+6	6,674 (1.9)	8,993 (2.3)	+2,319
Science	2	2	0	160 (0.0)	288 (0.0)	+128
Engineering	127	93	-34	22,802 (6.3)	20,719 (5.3)	-2,083
Agriculture	27	30	+3	4,354 (1.2)	4,114 (1.1)	-240
Health care	64	136	+72	11,614 (3.2)	21,546 (5.5)	+9,932
Domestic science	319	296	-23	98,440 (27.3)	102,073 (26.1)	+3,633
Teacher training	257	272	+15	85,448 (23.7)	76,708 (19.6)	-8,740
Fine arts	75	77	+2	17,858	18,386 (5.0)	+528 (4.7)
Secretarial courses	0	11	+11	0 (-)	3,208 (0.8)	+3,208
Total	1,264	1,365	+101	360,026	391,078 (100.0)	+31,052 (100.0)

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1976, 1986.

The numbers of courses and students show substantial fluctuations during the period covered by this report. These trends reflect the government's labor force policy (particularly that for women) and general trends in the employment market in recent years. During the period 1976 to 1986, the total number of courses increased by 101, and the number of students by 31,052. The field of Health Care accounted for the most noticeable increase in the number of courses, with an increase of 72. This reflected a government policy which called for upgrading the level of nursing education by reorganizing the structure of national nursing schools from SG and KG to junior colleges. Although engineering decreased in terms of the numbers of both courses and students, this was primarily the result of reorganizing national industrial junior colleges into night schools at universities. The number of Humanities courses increased by 32, and the number of students by more than 20,000, accounting for as much as 64.4% of the increase in the total number of new junior college students. This figure reflects the favorable employment situation for women graduating from junior colleges and hired for general clerical work. In Teacher Training, although the number of courses increased, student numbers decreased. The fact that employment of teachers was favorable during the early part of this period, but deteriorated remarkably during the final stage accounts for this. In contrast, in Domestic Science, the number of courses is tending to decrease despite a slight rise in the number of students. This shows a shift in the direction taken by junior colleges as a result of an awareness that women are becoming more career-oriented. (See Table 10)

If this trend is compared with that of universities, the characteristic features of junior colleges are brought into sharp relief. It is because, from a macroscopic perspective, the content of education offered at universities has not reflected the recent trends in employment. (See Table 11)

Table 11
Number of University Students by Major

	1976	1986	Change
Humanities	223,462(13.1)	253,010(14.4)	+29,548
Social sciences	707,314(41.6)	678,842(38.6)	-28,472
General studies	3,819(0.2)	7,706(0.4)	+3,887
Science	51,543(3.0)	60,306(3.4)	+8,763
Engineering	339,713(20.0)	349,579(19.9)	+9,866
Agriculture	59,922(3.5)	60,792(3.5)	+870
Health care	98,253(5.8)	118,456(6.7)	+20,203
Domestic science	30,488(1.8)	32,893(1.9)	+2,405
Teacher training	126,259(7.4)	136,493(7.8)	+10,234
Art	40,588(2.4)	45,198(2.6)	+4,610
Merchant marine	1,882(0.1)	1,552(0.1)	-330
Undecided	18,992(1.1)	13,808(0.8)	-5,184
Total	1,702,235(100.0)	1,758,635(100.0)	+56,400

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1976, '86

Table 12
Number of Courses Offered by Technical Colleges by Type of Entity (1986)

	Total	National	Local	Private
Engineering-related courses	214	190	13	11
Merchant marine-related courses	10	10	-	-
Total	240	200	13	11

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986.

3. Technical Colleges

Of the 224 courses available in technical colleges as of 1986, 13 courses are local, 11 are private, and the remaining 200 are established in national institutions. (See Table 12) During the ten-year period of 1976 to 1986, there were no major changes within these institutions, except that three private technical colleges were reorganized and promoted to universities. Signs of adaptation to the employment situation can be seen in this change. The establishment of new courses, such as Electromechanical Engineering,

Electronic Control Engineering, Electronic Information Engineering, Information Engineering, Distribution Information Engineering, and Material Engineering, are some such signs.

4. SG

The composition of the advanced courses of SG and the number of students enrolled in each course reflect the employment market more than in the case of junior colleges. A comparison of data for SG from fiscal 1978 and fiscal 1986 is given below. Note that the SG system was inaugurated in fiscal 1976. During the years from 1978 to 1986, the total number of courses increased by 1,518 from 4,267 to 5,785 (an increase of 35.6%), and the number of students increased by 123,689 (an increase of 39.8%) from 310,800 to 434,489. However, the fluctuations differ for each field. Courses which attracted the most noticeable increase are those related to industry, commerce and business practice. The number of these courses increased by 554 and 577, respectively, and the number of students increased by 50,629 and 39,755, respectively. Courses in Computer Technology, a steady sector of the employment market, fall under the category of industry, while Accounting/ Bookkeeping and Secretarial courses fall under the category of commerce and business practice. Courses in Medical Treatment and Hygiene also witnessed substantial increases. The number of courses in those areas rose by 341 and 118, respectively, and the number of students rose by 36,881 and 13,223. Meanwhile, in the area of Teacher Training/Social Welfare, although the number of courses increased by 31, the number of students decreased by 6,201, a trend parallel to that in junior colleges. In Domestic Science, a reduction in the number of courses (a decrease of 430) and a sizable decline in the number of students (a decrease of 39,407) were recorded. (See Table 13) An additional point to be made is that, frequently, university and junior college students are simultaneously enrolled in SG; their attendance at SG is thus popularly known as "double schooling". Although material is not yet available which reveals the entire picture, a glimpse of the situation can be gleaned from a survey conducted in 1985 by the Association for Promotion of SG. The regular curricula and auxiliary curricula of six schools, (two schools each allied to the fields of Accounting/Bookkeeping, Information Processing and Foreign Languages) which are located in Tokyo and considered to have numerous students enrolled in two schools, were surveyed. The results showed that an average of 20.1%

of the students enrolled in SG were also enrolled in universities (including graduate schools) or junior colleges. In one particular auxiliary curriculum related to information processing, 47.1%, or practically half of the students, were, in fact, "double school" students.

According to a survey of students conducted simultaneously, the primary reason for being enrolled in a SG was "to prepare for certificate examinations or to acquire qualifications(54.6%)." This reason was followed, in order, by "extensive knowledge and general interest(36.0%)," "to acquire expert knowledge, practical know-how, and techniques(34.6%)," and "necessary and advantageous for employment(34.6%)." These survey results have been

Table 13
Changes in the Number of Courses of SG and the Number of Students

	No. of courses			No. of students		
	1978	1986	Change	1978	1986	Change
Industry-related	309	863	+554	53,138 (17.1)	103,767 (23.9)	+50,629
Agriculture-related	9	13	+4	388 (0.1)	494 (0.1)	+106
Medical treatment-related	733	1,074	+341	73,996 (23.8)	110,877 (25.5)	+36,881
Hygiene-related	200	318	+118	19,803 (6.4)	33,026 (7.6)	+13,223
Teacher training/ social welfare-related	114	145	+31	22,503 (7.2)	16,302 (3.8)	-6,201
Commerce and business practice	221	798	+577	22,481 (7.2)	62,236 (14.3)	+39,755
Domestic science-related	2,420	1,990	-430	88,689 (28.5)	49,282 (11.3)	-39,407
Culture/general studies-related	261	584	+323	29,802 (9.6)	58,505 (13.5)	+28,703
Foreign languages	67	153	+86	11,062 (3.6)	16,142 (3.7)	+5,080
Fine arts	165	330	+165	16,672 (5.4)	35,891 (8.3)	+19,219
Others	29	101	+72	2,068 (0.7)	6,472 (1.5)	+4,404
Total	4,267	5,785	+1,518	310,800 (100.0)	434,489 (100.0)	+123,689

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1978, 1986.

interpreted as proof that the education offered by SG is supplementary to that offered by universities and junior colleges.

5. KG

In fiscal 1986, 4,969 courses were being taught and 483,439 students were enrolled in KG, institutions of the Third Sector. A breakdown of curricula into field area/courses is as follows: Industry-related, 46; Agriculture-related, 11; Medical Treatment-related, 411; Hygiene-related, 85; Education and Social Welfare-related, 22; Commerce and Business Practice-related, 1,001; Domestic Science-related, 2,045; Culture and General studies-related, 418; and Others, 930 (preparatory schools and schools for foreigners are included in this category). As indicated, the fields of Commerce and Business Practice and Domestic Science are predominant. Within all of these fields, certain curricula set graduation from upper secondary school as a requirement for admission, and 156,858 students were enrolled in this group. Of this figure, 126,008 students were "yobiko" (preparatory school) students who were studying for university entrance examinations. Other fields included medical treatment (8,159 students), followed in order of enrollment, by Domestic Science, Culture and General Studies, Commerce and Business Practice, Education/Social Welfare, Industry, Agriculture, and Hygiene.

6. Summary

The Japanese University Sector embraces fields of scientific technology, and numerous fields have a professional orientation, but it has a low training factor. Accordingly, the NUS exists not so much to offer education in fields not available in universities but, rather, to provide skill training, or to provide vocational education with a lower level of qualification in identical fields or to provide short-term courses to clientele who have no opportunity to enter university. The fact that junior colleges provide education to women, who do not -- in social terms -- have admission opportunities equivalent to those of men, is one example.

However, education of a quality which cannot be offered by the University Sector is beginning to be available in some SG, in such fields as language training, training in information processing and design. And, significantly, this

type of school can be most sensitive to trends in the employment market. The dynamic development of the content of Japanese higher education in recent years is greatly attributable to the appearance of this new type of schools.

Chapter 5

ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS OF VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS IN THE NON-UNIVERSITY SECTOR

Akira TACHI

1. Framework of Personnel Structure

A faculty council is the juridical body in the institutional decision making of universities and junior colleges. All professors at each university and junior college are members of a faculty council. The establishment of a faculty council is requisite for each such institution, and assistant professors and other staff members may be admitted to that organization. Technical colleges are also subject to a similar stipulation, and a technical college must have a director, professors, assistant professors, assistants, and clerical staff. In addition, there may also be lecturers, technicians, and other staff members. However, technical colleges do not have a faculty council; a director has the institutional decision making authority. Although it is stipulated by law that a SG must have a director and a large number of teachers, there are no stipulations governing the classification of teachers, and no special stipulations over the clerical staff. For SG as well, the director is the decision maker and there are no provisions concerning a faculty council.

Table 14
Numbers of FTF, PTF, and Rate of FTF to Total Number of Teachers
(by type and affiliation of school; 1986)

	Universities			Junior Colleges		
	FTF	PTF	Rate(%)	FTF	PTF	Rate(%)
National	51,752	23,478	(68.8)	1,173	2,728	(30.1)
Local	6,132	4,022	(60.4)	1,898	1,869	(50.4)
Private	55,993	51,356	(52.2)	15,134	23,303	(39.4)
Total	113,877	78,856	(59.1)	18,205	28,375	(39.1)

	Technical Colleges			SG		
	FTF	PTF	Rate(%)	FTF	PTF	Rate(%)
National	3,261	1,885	(63.4)	673	10,914	(5.8)
Local	345	152	(69.4)	1,595	11,165	(12.5)
Private	191	41	(82.3)	17,583	45,951	(27.7)
Total	3,797	2,078	(64.6)	19,851	68,030	(22.6)

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986

With respect to the teaching staff, there is a distinction between full-time faculty (FTF) and part-time faculty (PTF), and each type of school has distinct structural features. According to data for fiscal 1986, institutions having the largest ratio of FTF to the total number of teachers were technical colleges. If national, local, and private technical colleges are added, this ratio is 64.6%. Institutions having the next largest ratio were junior colleges; but this ratio was only 39.1%. Local public junior colleges registered 50.4%, and national junior colleges 30.1%. (See Table 14). This is partly attributable to the fact that many junior colleges are established as appendages of universities. According to data for fiscal 1985, 86.6% of junior colleges are appended to other schools.

The type of school which has the lowest ratio of FTF is SG, and this ratio is 22.6% for all national, local public, and private SG.

2. Breakdown of FTF by the Type of Institutions

As of 1986, there are 18,205 full-time teachers at junior colleges. Of these teachers, 2.0% are presidents; 0.5% vice presidents; 36.0% professors; 28.0% assistant professors; 23.3% lecturers; and 10.1% assistants. At technical colleges, there are 3,797 full-time teachers, 1.5% of them are directors; 34.4% professors; 39.3% assistant professors; 12.9% lecturers; and 11.9% assistants.

Since the corresponding percentages for universities are 0.4% for presidents, 0.1% for vice presidents, 33.8% for professors, 23.3% for assistant professors, 13.1% for lecturers, and 29.3% for assistants, it can be seen that the strata of professors, assistant professors, and lecturers in junior colleges are thicker than those of universities, whereas the stratum of assistants is thinner. In contrast, the make-up of technical colleges is such that the strata of professors and lecturers are substantially the same as those of universities, while the stratum of assistant professors is thicker, and the stratum of assistants is thinner.

A common feature of junior colleges and technical colleges is the thinness of the stratum of assistants, from which it is possible to estimate the relative

Table 15
Breakdown of FTF by Type of School and Post (1986)

	Universities		Junior Co.		Technical Co.	
	No. of FTF	Rate (%)	No. of FTF	Rate (%)	No. of FTF	Rate (%)
President (Director)	452	0.4	367	2.0	61	1.6
Professors	126	0.1	102	0.6	-	-
Assistant professors	38,510	33.8	6,559	36.0	1,306	34.4
Lecturers	26,506	23.3	5,093	28.0	1,492	39.3
Assistants	14,876	13.1	4,244	23.3	488	12.9
Total	33,407	29.3	1,840	10.1	450	11.9
	113,877	100.0	18,205	100.0	3,797	100.0

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986

weakness of the organizational foundation of research conducted by these two types of institutions. (See Table 15)

That the stratum of professors is thicker among the teachers of junior colleges is related to the fact that the average age of teachers in this type of school is the highest among higher education-related institutions. According to data for fiscal 1983, the average age of full-time teachers in universities was 44.8 and that in technical colleges 45.4, whereas the average age of junior college teachers was 48.0. (See Table 16) One reason for this is that a considerable number of junior college teachers are professors who have retired from universities which often have a lower retirement age than junior colleges. The number of teachers who moved to junior colleges in fiscal 1982 was 268, their average age being 50.4. Of these, 192 moved from universities and their average age was 50.8. Teachers 65 or older were the most numerous in 1983. The average age of teachers moving to universities was 44.3, the peak age band being 30 - 35 years; while the average age of teachers at technical colleges was 42.6, the peak age band being 40-45 years ("Report on Statistical Survey of

Table 16
Average Age of FTF by Type of Schools and Sex (1983)

Universities			Junior Co.			Technical Co.			SG		
Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
44.8	45.3	40.1	48.0	50.6	43.9	45.4	45.5	36.7	41.2	42.7	40.1

Source: "Gakkokyoin Tokeichosa Hokokusho; Report on Statistical Survey of School Teachers" 1983

School Teachers," 1983).

The average age of teachers holding principal posts at SG was 41.2, the lowest figure among higher educational institutions. This indicates the youth of the faculty at this type of school. When the teachers at SG are broken down by sex, 43.4% of the teachers were male, and 56.6% of them were female, compared with the 60.5% of the teachers at junior colleges that are male.

Table 17
Breakdown of FTF by Academic Career
(by type of schools; 1983)

	Universities	Junior	Technical colleges	SG colleges
New-system post-graduate schools				
Doctor's course	26.0	11.0	5.8	1.0
Master's course	21.8	16.9	24.6	3.1
New-system universities	30.1	29.9	42.2	20.8
Old-system universities	14.6	12.6	11.0	3.9
Foreign universities	2.6	3.8	0.3	2.2
Junior colleges	0.4	8.0	3.8	17.3
Old-system upper secondary schools	3.2	12.2	8.9	12.6
Others	0.8	4.9	3.3	38.7
No replies/unclear	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.3
Total No. of FTF	99,394	17,110	3,766	22,352

Notes 1) This includes those who were enrolled for a specified period of years and were recognized as having acquired the specified credits, even if they failed to complete the dissertation and final examination.
2) This includes graduate schools under the old system.
3) This includes those who were enrolled in university for two or more years, but who left university mid-course after acquiring 62 credits or more.
4) This includes, among schools under the old system, higher schools, professional colleges and other types of school equivalent to professional colleges.

Source: "Gakkokyoin Tokeichosa Hokokusho; Report on Statistical Survey of School Teachers" 1983

The academic career structures of teachers at junior colleges is similar to that at universities, except that the percentage of graduates of graduate schools is slightly lower. The percentage of doctor's course graduates is 26.0% for universities and 11.0% for junior colleges, while the percentage of master's course graduates is 21.8% for universities and 16.9% for junior colleges. The percentages of graduates of junior colleges and graduates of the prewar system of higher colleges are, respectively, 0.4% and 3.2% for universities, and 8.0% and 12.2% for junior colleges. Among junior college teachers, the percentage of graduates from foreign universities is 3.8%, higher than the 2.6% for universities.

In contrast, the academic career structure of technical college teachers tends to be concentrated on graduates of the universities of postwar system and master's courses. In technical colleges, the percentage of such graduates is 42.2%, and the percentage of master's course graduates is also high, 24.6%. This could be related to the fact that the composition of courses at technical colleges is concentrated on engineering-related courses.

The academic career structure of SG teachers is markedly different from those of other school types. Specifically, those without degrees make up the highest category at 38.7%, and graduates of the universities of postwar system, who top the list at other types of schools, are second at 20.8%. Another characteristic feature is that graduates of junior colleges account for 17.3%, in third place. (See Table 17)

3. Breakdown of PTF by the Type of Institutions

Differences in the personnel structure of the faculty of the various types of school are also apparent in the profiles of PTF.

According to data for fiscal 1983 on PTF at universities, 53.1% were teachers at other institutions, 3.0% were researchers at research institutes, and 34.4% had other professions. In junior colleges, 46.9% were teachers at other schools, 1.4% were researchers, and 41.9% were others. In technical colleges, 46.2% were teachers at other schools, 1.6% were researchers, and 46.0% were others. Thus, although the proportions of researchers are slightly smaller, the breakdowns of PTF at junior colleges and technical colleges are very similar to that of universities.

In SG (including all offering courses other than advanced courses), however, the percentage of school teachers is only 29.9%, whereas the percentage of teachers with other professions is a high 66.3%. It is evident that there is a qualitative difference in the basis used for recruiting PTF. (See Table 18)

4. Teaching Load of FTF

There are differences in the numbers of hours taught by teachers per week at junior colleges, technical colleges, and SG. The average teaching load at junior colleges, including all national, local public, and private institutions, was 8.4 hours. It was 8.0 hours for national institutions, 7.9 hours for local

Table 18
Locations of Principal Posts of Part-time Faculty Members
(by school type; 1983)

Principal posts	PT posts number	(%)	4-year univ. number	(%)	Junior college number	(%)	Technical college number	(%)
Teachers	36,689	53.1	11,404	46.9	923	46.2	18,551	29.9
Univ.	29,654	42.9	9,014	37.1	684	34.3	10,346	16.7
J.C.	4,210	6.1	1,132	4.7	87	4.4	1,626	2.6
T.C.	519	0.8	156	0.6	12	0.6	547	0.9
SG/KG	346	0.5	313	1.3	22	1.1	2,312	3.7
Other	1,960	2.8	789	3.2	118	5.9	1,890	3.0
Researcher	2,040	3.0	340	1.4	31	1.6	1,830	2.9
Other professions	23,769	34.4	9,966	41.0	919	46.0	41,169	66.3
NA	6,620	9.6	2,616	10.8	124	6.2	2,356	3.8
Total	69,118	100.0	24,326	100.0	1,997	100.0	62,076	100.0

Source: "Gakkokyoin Tokeichosa Hokokusho; Report on Statistical Survey of School Teachers" 1983.

Table 19
The Number of Hours Taught by a Teacher per Week
(by type of schools and affiliation)

	University	Junior college	Technical college	SG
National	9.3	8.0	13.3	7.8
Local	9.4	7.9	15.1	14.8
Private	8.6	8.5	17.1	14.9
Total	8.9	8.4	13.6	14.6

Source: "Gakkokyoin Tokeichosa Hokokusho; Report on Statistical Survey of School Teachers" 1983

institutions and 8.5 hours for private institutions. This pattern closely resembles that of universities, though the teaching load is even lighter than that at universities. The reason for this is that, in universities, teachers are frequently required to teach at other departments or at graduate schools in addition to the departments to which they belong. In contrast, in technical colleges, the teaching load was 13.6 hours, while at SG it was 14.6 hours, 1.6 and 1.7 times those of junior colleges, respectively. All technical colleges and SG display similar trends, with the exception that the teaching load of national SG teachers was 7.8 hours, substantially the same as that for junior colleges. (See Table 19)

5. Salaries and Research Expenses

According to data for September 1983, the average monthly salaries of FTF for each school type was 313,000 yen at universities, 273,000 yen at junior colleges, 298,000 yen at technical colleges, and 178,000 yen at SG. However, not only differences among school types but also differences among the types of foundation are very significant.

In national institutions, salaries were 299,000 yen at universities, 294,000 yen at junior colleges, 297,000 yen at technical colleges: practically no difference. In local public institutions, salaries were 302,000 yen for universities, 298,000 yen for junior colleges, 321,000 yen for technical colleges: also substantially the same. In SG, salaries were slightly lower at 228,000 yen for national institutions and 213,000 yen for local public institutions. In national institutions, the same table of salaries as that for universities is applied to junior college teachers, and a table of salaries of a slightly lower level is applied to technical college teachers. Similar treatment is provided for local public institutions. Since salary increases from the time of employment and the time of promotion are based on seniority, as far as the basic salary is concerned, differences among junior colleges, technical colleges, and universities are influenced most by the age structure.

In private institutions, however, salary levels differ for each school in accordance with the income of their governing bodies. As a result, although the average monthly salary for private universities was 325,000 yen, exceeding that for national universities, those for private junior colleges and technical colleges were 268,000 yen and 285,000 yen, below the level of national institutions for the same types of school. In general, junior colleges and

technical colleges are smaller than universities, so that their incomes from tuition fees are small. In addition, junior colleges have large numbers of elderly teachers, and it often happens that the salary paid to a teacher who has retired from another university for age reasons is merely the difference between his salary before retirement and his pension. This tends to lower the level of salaries in private junior colleges.

The average monthly salary at private SG was 173,000 yen. It is necessary to take into account the fact that the average age of teachers in this type of

Table 20
Average Monthly Salaries of Full-Time Faculty
(by type of schools and affiliation; in thousands yen)

	University	Junior college	Technical college	SG
National	299.3	294.2	296.7	228.1
Local	302.4	297.7	321.3	213.2
Private	325.4	268.2	285.3	173.2
Total	313.0	272.9	298.4	178.0

Note:
1) Monthly salaries include basic salaries bu not various allowances or compensations.
2) Figures for universities and junior colleges represent the overall average salary, and includes that of the president, vice president, professors, assistant professors, and assistants; figures for technical degrees represent the overall average salary for the director, professors, assistant professors, assistants; figures for SG represent the overall average salary for full-time teachers.

Source: "Gakkokyoin Tokeichosa Hokokusho; Report on Statistical Survey of School Teachers" 1983

school is lower than that of other types. Even so, it is clear that the level of salaries of SG teachers in private institutions is very low. (See Table 20)

6. Policy Implication

The differences in governance patterns, career patterns of teachers, teaching load, and levels of remuneration exert significant influence on the structure of Japanese postsecondary education system. While the faculty council which governs the institutional policy of universities and junior colleges provides democratic basis of governance in those institutions, it tends to consolidate conservative self-interest of traditional disciplines. On the other hand, whereas the concentration of decision making power in the principals and the directors at technical colleges, SG, and KG sometimes leads to autocratic governance of such institutions, it frees the hands of the leaders of the institutions to respond to the needs of society and students and to innovate their institutions more rapidly and flexibly.

The NUI contribute to generate flexibility among Japanese postsecondary education system, firstly by providing students with opportunities for "double schooling," secondly, particularly at junior colleges and to a certain extent at technical colleges, by providing academic career people before or after university service, employment opportunities, and thirdly by providing men in society with professional expertize with service in the postsecondary education, particularly at SG.

To be noted in this connection is the presence of academic and social pecking order. Universities at the top, technical colleges and junior colleges at the second, and SG and KG to follow. The remuneration and other working conditions as well as social prestige of their teachers and students are in accordance with the order. At the same time, in reverse order, these institutions respond more closely to the changing needs and demands of society. Thus, varieties and coexistance of these institutions have their own place and meaning in the total postsecondary education system.

Chapter 6

FINANCE AND ADMINISTRATION IN THE NON-UNIVERSITY SECTOR

Masaya IWANAGA

1. General Trends

The most distinctive feature of the financial system of higher education in Japan is that the share of the public for expenditure is small, relative to the overall national economy. Although the total expenditure on education is, in fact, large, such public expenditure is mainly and heavily allocated to elementary and secondary education. The budget appropriated and allocated to higher education comprises only 20% of the total educational disbursement.

Of the total amount spent on higher education, 3,581 billion yen in 1982, 1,442,500 million yen was provided by national and local governments (1,015,400 million yen to national educational institutions, 123,700 million yen to locally funded institutions and 303,300 million yen in subsidies to private institutions). The average ratio of public expenditure on higher education to GNP -- 0.9% in the last three years -- is low compared to the United States (1.5%), the United Kingdom (1.9%), and West Germany (1.8%). The reason

for such a low rate of public expenditure on higher education is that a large segment of higher or postsecondary education in Japan is operated by private funds. It depends on private educational institutions highly. In 1987, for example, of the total of 474 4-year universities, 342 or 72% were private, and 470 or 84% of 561 junior colleges were also private. Likewise, 88% of SG (special training schools) and 97% of KG (miscellaneous schools) were run by private school bodies. Although just 6% of technical colleges were private institutions, technical colleges represent a very small part of the total postsecondary education.

2. Finance of National Higher Educational Institutions

Most public higher educational institutions in Japan are nationally organized and local institutions are run in a similar fashion in terms of finances, administration and operation.

A national educational institution is fundamentally treated as a section of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture rather than as an independent organization. Its finances are, therefore, regulated according to the laws associated with public finance, as are other governmental organs. Independent decision making by each of these institutions is restricted to a large extent. The tuition and entrance fees collected from the students by each institution are, for example, kept in the National Treasury. The costs of administering an institution are appropriated by the National Treasury according to a budget which is usually based on the previous year's expenditure.

Strictly speaking, therefore, each educational institution is given no room to exercise independent decision making on financial matters. More recently, however, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has inaugurated a number of measures toward independent financing, such as promotion of individual universities and the like securing their own sources of funds, and easing restrictions related to donations. The consequences of this departure remain to be seen.

Table 21 indicates the amounts (in Japanese Yen) provided by each source and the ratio to total revenues, according to type of schools. All revenues are, in principle, provided by the National Treasury. However, each school actually collects tuition and earns certain projected revenues, the expenses aggregated are assumed to equal the total revenues with collected tuition and project income considered to be part of revenue. (With respect to hospitals attached

Table 21
Sources of Funds for Higher Educational Institutions 1)
(national institutions only; 1985)

Source of fund	4-Year univ.	Junior college	Technical college	SG	KG
Tuition/ fees	108,119 (14.0)	2,927 (21.3)	4,287 (8.2)	79 (5.9)	9 (5.1)
Appropri- ation	595,325 (77.3)	10,734 (78.1)	47,713 (90.8)	1,142 (85.8)	158 (85.9)
Private gifts	23,371 (3.0)	75 (0.5)	125 (0.2)	... (...)	... (...)
Other	43,982 (5.7)	5 (0.0)	429 (0.8)	110 (8.2)	17 (9.0)
Total	770,797 (100.0)	13,741 (100.0)	52,554 (100.0)	1,331 (100.0)	184 (100.0)

Notes: 1) Education and General (E&G) only. Medical revenues excluded.
2) Main figures: amount (million yen).
3) Figures in parentheses: percentages.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986.

to universities, neither expenses nor revenues are included.) Generally, the ratio of public subsidy (government appropriation) exceeds 75% in all types of schools. Among those belonging to the NUS, junior colleges are most heavily dependent on the amounts paid by students compared with 4-year universities and other higher educational institutions. Donations and other revenues (including endowments) account for a negligible proportion in all institutions. In contrast, technical colleges which also belong to the NUS are almost entirely operated by public funds. SG, part of the NUS, and KG which belong to the Third Sector, closely resemble each other in terms of financial structure, partly because they share a common historical background. The high ratio of other revenues is distinctive in both.

Table 22 shows the changes that took place in the financial structure of national educational institutions in the years 1974, 1980 and 1985.

In 4-year universities, it is apparent that the ratio of appropriation has been dropping rapidly. On the other hand, all other items have increased greatly. The expansion of payments made by students is especially clear. This is a common trend in all nationally operated educational institutions.

Table 22
Changes in the Financial Sources of Higher Education Institutions
(national institutions only; 1974, 1980, 1985; in percent)

Schools	4-Year univ.			Junior college			Technical college		
Year	74	80	85	74	80	85	74	80	85
Tuition	3.6	8.7	14.0	8.2	13.7	21.3	2.5	5.1	8.2
Appropriation	91.3	87.2	77.3	91.8	86.2	78.1	96.9	94.2	90.8
Private gifts	1.3	2.0	3.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.2
Other	3.8	2.1	5.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.7	0.8

Schools	SG			KG		
Year	74	80	85	74	80	85
Tuition	- 1)	1.5	5.9	-	1.3	5.1
Appropriation	-	91.1	85.8	-	90.4	85.9
Private gifts	-	...2)	...	-	...	...
Other	-	7.4	8.2	-	8.3	9.0

Notes 1) "-" represents non-existence of institutions or indicates that statistical figures are not available.
2) "..." means parameters do not exist.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1974-1986.

Apparently lying behind this trend is the principle that has been emphasized by the government in the last ten years or so, which is that the costs of education should be borne by its beneficiaries. The share of payments made by students in junior colleges to total revenues -- which was already higher in 1974 than that in universities -- has recently exceeded 20%. A drop in the appropriation percentage and a rise in the share of payments made by students in technical colleges, though they also belong to the NUS, are not so sharp as those changes in junior colleges or in 4-year universities. The changes that have occurred in SG and in KG are very similar. They share a common trend with all other educational institutions in that the beneficiaries are being asked to bear a greater proportion of the costs.

Table 23 indicates expenditures in education and general purpose by cost per item, according to the categorization of national educational institutions. In general, education and research expenses account for the main while library expenses and capital expenditure weigh relatively low. A comparison by school type reveals that education and research expenses are relatively high in SG and

Table 23
Details of Operating Expenditures in Higher Educational Institutions 1)
(national institutions only; 1985)

Expense items	4-Year univ.	Junior college	Technical college	SG	KG
Education/ research 4)	383,371 2) (49.7) 3)	8,248 (60.0)	23,818 (45.3)	836 (62.8)	138 (75.1)
Administration/ operation 5)	202,501 (26.3)	2,698 (19.6)	18,548 (35.3)	138 (10.4)	6 (3.3)
Other current expense	55,018 (7.2)	464 (3.5)	4,307 (8.2)	227 (17.1)	21 (11.7)
Library	11,840 (1.5)	265 (1.9)	523 (1.0)	20 (1.5)	4 (2.3)
Capital expenditure	118,066 (15.3)	2,064 (15.0)	5,357 (10.2)	109 (8.2)	14 (7.6)
Total	770,797 (100.0)	13,741 (100.0)	52,554 (100.0)	1,331 (100.0)	184 (100.0)

Notes 1) E&G only. Medical expenditures excluded.
2) Main figures: amount (million yen).
3) Figures in parentheses: percentages.
4) Including salaries for teachers.
5) Including salaries for administration staff.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986.

KG, and low in technical colleges and in 4-year universities. Conversely, the proportion of administration and operation expense is high in technical colleges and 4-year universities while it is low in SG and KG. For both cost items, junior colleges are positioned between the two extremes. The proportion of capital expenditure, including the costs of land acquisition and facility construction, is high in 4-year universities and junior colleges. For the most part, in the University Sector, expenditure on education and research is low compared to other sectors while administration and operating expenses and capital expenditure are high. Conversely, the proportion of education and research expenses stands out in the Third Sector, whereas the relative size of capital expenditure is small.

3. Finance in Private Higher Educational Institutions

A private educational institution is fundamentally operated under an independent Board of Trustees. The final responsibility in financial affairs is, therefore, assumed by its Board of Trustees. As far as higher educational

institutions are concerned, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture may act only as the "licensing authority", and has no power to intervene in matters related to the administration, operation, or the finances once the institution is approved. This is because the "Private Schools Act" of Japan urges respect for the independence of private schools including the principle that the costs associated with private schools should be provided by their founders.

Nonetheless, since 1970, the National Treasury began to contribute subsidies to the total finances of private educational institutions and has increased it following the "Act of Subsidiary Funds for Operation of Private Universities and Others" in 1970 on the ground of assisting the deteriorating financial position of private higher educational institutions, the supervising authority exercised by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture over each private school has been indirectly broadened. In legal terms, however, these subsidies are paid through a special legal body, the "Japan Private Schools Promotion Foundation", instead of being directly allocated by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture.

Table 24
Sources of Funds for Higher Educational Institutions 1)
(private institutions only: 1985)

Source of fund	4-Year univ.	Junior college	Technical college	SG	KG
Tuition/ fees	1,011,874 2) (64.6) 3)	245,035 (69.3)	1,571 (63.1)	272,587 (72.3)	173,296 (56.8)
Subsidy	231,236 (14.8)	40,328 (11.4)	600 (24.1)	8,910 (2.4)	2,991 (1.0)
Private gifts	46,041 (2.9)	5,947 (1.7)	61 (2.4)	11,897 (3.2)	6,953 (2.3)
Other	276,111 (17.7)	62,393 (17.6)	259 (10.4)	83,569 (22.1)	121,798 (39.9)
Total	1,565,262 (100.0)	353,703 (100.0)	2,491 (100.0)	376,963 (100.0)	305,038 (100.0)

Notes 1) E&G only. Medical revenues excluded.
2) Main figures: amount (million yen).
3) Figures in parentheses: percentages.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986.

Table 24 shows the structure of the various sources of funds utilized in private higher educational institutions, according to school type. In comparison with national institutions, the share of payments made by students is very high. It comprises nearly 2/3 of the total revenues, and the rate of public assistance (subsidy) is remarkably low as compared to national institutions. In the case of 4-year universities, payments made by students comprise about 2/3 of the total revenue while the remaining 1/3 is divided among subsidies and other revenues. Private gifts amounts to barely 2.9%, lower than that for national universities. In junior colleges, the composition of fund sources is not very different from 4-year universities. The proportion represented by payments made by students is a little higher than that in universities, however. With respect to technical colleges, a comparison in terms of the actual amount is of little significance, partly because only a small number of institutions (4 schools) exist. But an outstandingly high proportion of subsidy (almost 1/4) compared to all other private school types should be noticed. On the other hand, the large percentage accounted for by the payments made by students is conspicuous. The subsidies allocated to SG are almost nothing in cases where few gifts are received. The reason why other revenues account for almost 1/4 of the total is that project revenues, as well as receipts from land disposition, are included in their budgets. In contrast to institutions in the University Sector or the NUS, in the KG that belong to the Third Sector, other revenues mount up to almost 40%. The sharp increase in other revenues in the KG category resulted from the fact that those KG that were reduced in size had gained receipts from the sale of lands or facilities, and this should not be regarded as a stable trend in the long run.

With regard to changes in financial sources from a historical perspective, the years 1974, '80 and '85 are used for purposes of comparison as they were in the case of national institutions. Table 25 shows these changes. It can be seen that the percent of subsidy increased in all types of schools until 1980 but decreased in the next five years. Thus it is suggested that the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture which had continuously emphasized the promotion of private schools throughout the 1970s, changed its position and started holding back at the beginning of the 1980s. However, various school types have shown rather different trends. In 4-year universities, for example, the share of payments made by students has been consistently increasing. Even in technical colleges, most of which were nationally founded, the share of payments made by students has also been increasing.

Table 25
Changes in the Financial Sources of Higher Education Institutions
(private institutions only; 1974, 1980, 1985; in percent)

Schools	4-Year univ.			Junior college			Technical college		
Year	74	80	85	74	80	85	74	80	85
Tuition	59.1	64.0	64.6	73.6	72.3	69.3	46.2	54.8	63.1
Subsidy	16.7	22.0	14.8	13.4	15.9	11.4	26.5	32.6	24.1
Private gifts	15.9	3.9	2.9	5.3	2.1	1.7	2.8	3.0	2.4
Other	8.3	10.1	17.7	7.7	9.7	17.6	24.5	9.6	10.4

Schools	SG			KG		
Year	74	80	85	74	80	85
Tuition	-	79.3	72.3	79.9	75.9	56.8
Subsidy	-	3.4	2.4	3.0	1.7	1.0
Private gifts	-	4.9	3.2	6.6	2.8	2.3
Other	-	12.4	22.1	10.5	19.6	39.9

Note: "-" represents non-existence of institutions or indicates that statistical figures are not available.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1974-1986.

Although each sector has its own background, two general trends can be seen in the picture of financial sources: firstly, the percentage of subsidy increased at first and then decreased; secondly, regardless of such a tendency, the ratio of payments made by students was seen to increase. Finally, the details of the various expenditures made by private higher educational institutions will be presented. Table 26 shows the structure of educational and general expenses with respect to private higher educational institutions, according to items of expenditures.

Two characteristics common to national institutions are that education and general expenses comprise the main expenditures and that library expenses account for a relatively low proportion of the whole. But in private institutions, the ratio of capital expenditure to the total amount of education and general expenditures is substantially higher than in the national institutions. This is largely related to the fact that private higher educational institutions are currently adding more departments and courses and expanding their facilities to meet the wave of the second baby boom generation that is approaching the age for higher education. With more detailed investigation of each school

Table 26
Details of Operating Expenditures of Higher Education Institutions 1)
(private institutions only: 1985)

Expense items	4-Year univ.	Junior college	Technical college	SG	KG
Education/ research 4)	724,462 2) (44.6) 3)	133,220 (42.5)	1,646 (58.6)	205,605 (63.1)	125,587 (62.8)
Administration/ operation 5)	456,703 (28.1)	64,253 (20.5)	379 (13.5)	29,985 (9.2)	22,699 (11.3)
Other current expense	99,867 (6.1)	16,624 (5.3)	231 (8.3)	11,788 (3.6)	11,069 (5.6)
Library	26,925 (1.7)	4,240 (1.4)	15 (0.5)	1,040 (0.3)	688 (0.3)
Capital expenditure	316,971 (19.5)	94,866 (30.3)	537 (19.1)	77,402 (23.8)	40,013 (20.0)
Total	1,624,928 (100.0)	313,203 (100.0)	2,808 (100.0)	325,820 (100.0)	200,056 (100.0)

Notes 1) E&G only. Medical expenditures excluded.
2) Main figures: amount (million yen).
3) Figures in parentheses: percentages.
4) Including salaries for teachers.
5) Including salaries for administration staff.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1986.

type, some specific characteristics may be pointed out. First, education expenses occupy a large segment of the total expenses of SG and KG. In contrast, their administration and operation expenses are exceptionally small compared to those in such conventional higher educational institutions as 4-year universities and junior colleges. As this particular trend is also seen among national institutions, it may be considered that this is one indication that the NUS is relatively efficient in economic terms. A further feature is that the proportion of each private educational institution's expenditures allocated to library expenses, particularly in schools belonging to the NUS or to the Third Sector, is considerably lower than that in national institutions. Coupled with a high ratio of capital expenditure, this is causing some concern over the quality of education in the NUS and Third Sector.

4. Has the Non-University Sector Proved to be an Effective Way of Expanding Higher Education?

Diversification of higher education and improved efficiency in financial activities, together one of the essential themes discussed by the National Council on Educational Reform, seem to have been accomplished to a fair extent by the private NUS, especially by SG and by private KG belonging to the Third Sector. With respect to finances, the situation discussed above wherein the proportion of administration and operation expenses relative to the total expenditures of SG and KG is much smaller than that in other conventional higher educational institutions, is most likely contributing to a climate of efficient operation.

The background to this is that private SG and KG are, unlike other types of schools, fundamentally established on a market economy oriented-basis. Public higher educational institutions as well as private 4-year universities and junior colleges, which are established on the basis of the conventional education and social structure have not, in contrast, been able to actively adopt administration practices oriented to the market economy, partly because of legal restrictions, and partly because they are expected by society to deliver more broadly based aptitudes and to confer ostensible "credentials" upon students. Also, any change in policy direction toward such an operation seems very difficult to achieve.

In contrast, SG and KG, which are not regarded as conventional educational institutions, have been free from these two restrictions. Those two types of schools have been able to contribute to the diversification and improved efficiency of postsecondary education by employing their highly tuned sensitivity to the public's demand for various educational formats. The expansion of such newly established schools has indeed had some influence on conventional educational institutions. A good example of this is that many private junior colleges are beginning to introduce certain types of education and training that were originally peculiar to SG.

There is some doubt, however, whether this trend will spread to all sectors of the higher education system. One of the reasons for this is that there are legal restrictions, as mentioned above; another is problems associated with the style of administration, vis a vis the market economy, which has been adopted by SG. Firstly, though an increase in the number of such educational institutions would certainly have a favorable effect in terms of curtailing

governmental expenditures, it would in turn tend to add an unreasonable pressure on individual households. The amount presently paid to private higher educational institutions by the working household in this country amounts to as much as 20% of its disposable income. Secondly, an independent operation oriented to the market economy could easily lead to the appearance of educational institutions where management takes priority over education. That some such schools now exist in some quarters is already an issue of some concern in this country.

Chapter 7

THE EMPLOYMENT OF GRADUATES FROM NON-UNIVERSITY SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

Atsuyoshi OE[5]

1. Employment Rate and Employment Status of NUI Graduates by Academic Specialty and Sex

Since the inauguration of junior colleges in 1949, a large number of male students graduated every year, but their share has continuously declined; the percentage of male graduates were 45.3% in 1956, 30.8% in 1960, and 23.9% in 1965. The percentage of males to the total number of graduates has dropped to less than 10% in recent years. (See Table 27)

Among NUS institutions, governmental official statistics on graduation status and employment are available only for junior colleges and technical colleges. The percentage of junior college graduates who found jobs immediately after graduation steadily increased from 53.5% in 1956 to more than 80% in 1985. (See Table 28) The rate of employment is high for secretarial training (92.1%), industrial (83.1%), education (82.8%), but low for fine arts and design (59.5%), and agriculture (74.2%). (See Table 29)

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Table 27
The Number of Graduates from Junior Colleges and Percentage of Male Graduates

Year	Total	Males	Females	Percentage of Males
1955	28,407	12,873	15,543	45.3%
1960	30,401	9,360	21,041	30.8%
1965	55,728	13,315	42,413	23.9%
1970	114,803	15,285	99,518	13.3%
1975	140,938	15,865	125,073	11.3%
1980	169,930	14,730	155,200	8.7%
1985	176,624	12,568	162,056	7.2%
1987	164,399	12,549	151,850	7.6%

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1955-1987.

In total, more than 20,000 junior college graduates were unemployed or did not enter the labor force after graduation. Some of these intentionally remained without vocational work, such as those preparing for marriage. According to a survey conducted by Recruit Research Company, the average number of job offers for a junior college graduate who looked for a job in 1987 was 1.0. On the other hand, every female university student received 1.4 job offers.

Table 28
The Number and Percentage of Junior College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force (by sex)

	Total			Males			Females		
Year	A	B	B/A(%)	A	B	B/A(%)	A	B	B/A(%)
1970	114,803	80,740	70.3	15,285	12,305	80.5	99,518	68,435	68.8
1975	140,938	103,314	73.3	15,865	11,993	75.6	125,073	91,321	73.0
1980	169,930	129,156	76.0	14,730	10,578	71.8	155,200	118,578	76.4
1985	174,624	140,870	80.7	12,568	9,122	72.6	162,056	131,748	81.3
1987	164,399	133,151	81.0	12,549	8,338	66.4	151,850	124,813	82.2

Notes 1) A: The number of graduates.
2) B: The number of graduates who entered the labor force.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987.

Table 29
Junior College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force
(by major; 1985)

Majors	A	B	B/A(%)
Humanities	39,732	32,768	82.5
Social Sciences	15,480	12,462	80.5
Science	3,905	3,172	81.2
Engineering	7,002	5,816	83.1
Agriculture	1,719	1,257	74.2
Health	7,069	5,543	78.4
Home Economics	49,132	40,020	81.5
Education	40,642	33,642	82.8
Fine Arts	9,171	5,460	59.5
Secretary	772	712	92.2
Total	174,642	140,970	80.7

Notes 1) A: The number of graduates.
2) B: The number of graduates who entered the labor force.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1985

Technical colleges, first established in 1962 for the purpose of training middle-level engineers, are male-oriented institutions whose efforts are focused on industrial education and 97.2 - 98.8% of their graduates are male. Although the rate of employment for the technical college graduates remained stable at between 96 and 97% at the beginning, it has been around 90% in recent years. Of graduates from technical colleges, a little less than 10% transferred to universities as third year students, mainly to Departments of Technology. (See Table G-4.) Two national universities, Nagaoka University of Technology and Toyohashi University of Technology, started to accept students transferring from technical colleges in 1978, and University of Tokyo and TIT (Tokyo Institute of Technology) provided quota to accept some of their graduates also, which resulted in an increase in the number of technical college graduates entering universities.

The average number of job offers for a technical college graduate who seeks a job has been vulnerable to business fluctuations as the subjects offered are mainly related to industry, but has stayed at a rather high level: 15.5 offers per graduate in 1970, 15.1 in 1975, 10.4 in 1980 and 12.8 in 1985. Although the official statistics on the state of employment for SG graduates are not complete, of the total number of graduates, which amounted to 229,780, 82.9%

Table 30
Technical College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force (by sex)

Year	Total A	Total B	Total B/A(%)	Males A	Males B	Males B/A(%)	Females A	Females B	Females B/A(%)
1970	6,246	6,042	96.7	6,138	5,941	96.8	107	101	94.4
1975	8,346	7,542	90.4	8,199	7,405	90.3	147	137	93.2
1980	7,951	7,083	89.3	7,784	6,946	89.2	148	137	92.6
1985	8,031	7,150	89.0	7,820	6,962	89.0	211	188	89.1
1987	8,239	7,378	89.5	8,072	7,146	88.5	257	232	90.3

Notes 1) A: The number of graduates.
2) B: The number of graduates who entered the labor force.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987

Table 31
SG Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force
(by major; 1985)

Majors	A	B	B/A(%)
Engineering	45,163	41,407	91.7
Agriculture	437	301	68.9
Paramedical	50,882	46,917	92.2
Health	35,732	33,011	92.4
Education/ Social Work	7,017	6,448	91.9
Business	31,026	26,983	87.0
Home Economics	35,926	17,757	49.4
Science	23,617	17,756	75.2
Total	229,780	190,580	82.9

Notes 1) A: The number of graduates.
2) B: The number of graduates who entered the labor force.
3) Excluding "Yobiko; preparatory schools" for university entrance examinations.
Source: Recruit Research 1985.

were employed, while 39,000 were not. Specialized fields which show a high employment rate are: hygiene...92.4%, paramedical...92.2%, education/social welfare...91.1%, industrial...91.7%. One that has a low rate is household management...49.5%. (See Table 31)

Table 32
Average Initial Salary of New Employees Who Graduated from Junior Colleges or Technical Colleges (by sex)

Year	TC Grad.	index	JC Grad.	index(male)	JC Grad.	index(female)
1970	36,433	92.3	34,580	87.6	32,540	82.5
1975	83,323	91.9	81,567	90.0	77,336	85.3
1980	105,230	90.9	105,514	91.1	99,426	85.9
1985	128,586	91.0	126,814	89.7	120,463	85.2
1987	134,930	90.1	132,230	88.3	127,426	85.1

Note 1) Average initial salary of new employees who graduated from universities in each year...100.
Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987.

2. Wage Levels of NUS Graduates by Specialized Field and Sex

Regarding changes in the average starting monthly salary of junior college and technical graduates, the average had reached 81 thousand yen in 1975, having been only 35 thousand yen in 1970. This was the period of skyrocketing wage increases that may be attributed to the rapid growth of the Japanese economy and the inflation which accompanied it. In the period following this, starting salaries continued to increase, the average amounting to 106 thousand yen in 1980 and 127 thousand yen in 1985. (See Table 32) When comparing the starting salaries of clerical workers for male junior college graduates and male university graduates, assuming the salaries received by university graduates to be 100, the salaries received by junior college graduates were as follows: 87.6 in 1970, 90.3 in 1975, 91.1 in 1980, and 89.7 in 1985, representing a difference of about 10%.

No official statistics are available on the starting salaries of SG graduates. The National Personnel Authority, however, advised following the foundation of SG that those who had completed 2-year courses should be compensated at a level similar to that for junior college graduates. According to a survey conducted on private companies by Recruit Research Company in 1986, 86.7% of the companies which were asked about these starting salaries answered "same as or greater than junior college graduates' salaries."

As regards salaries in the ensuing years, the Japan Productivity Center conducts annual samplings and provides illustrative models. According to these

models, if the life-time wage receipts of a university graduate amounting 203 million yen is set at 100, the life-time wage receipts of a high school graduate are calculated to be 94.7. It is assumed that the life-time wage receipts of a junior college and SG graduates would be between 96 and 98 on this scale.

There is no custom of awarding differential wages based on various specialized fields of study at universities or schools in most Japanese private companies. Differentiation by sex has long been prevalent, however. Even though differentiation by sex has been prohibited since 1986 under the Equal Employment Opportunity Act, this practice of differentiation has not been brought to an end.

With respect to differentiation in starting salaries of junior college graduates by sex, if the salaries for men are assumed to be 100, those for women were as follows: 94.1 in 1970, 94.8 in 1975, 94.2 in 1980, and 95.0 in 1985. The difference by sex has remained between 5 and 6% for the last 15 years.

3. Employment of NUI Graduates By Industrial Classification

The state of employment for junior college graduates by industrial classification has experienced only moderate changes in the last 15 years. The proportion of those who were employed by manufacturers was 23.2% in 1970 and then gradually decreased, dropping to 18% in 1980. (See Table 33) The proportion has since been on an increasing trend, however, and has recently returned to 21.3%. Although some ups and downs are seen in regard to various sectors such as wholesale and retail, banking and insurance, service industries, and government, the rate in general has remained at much the same level.

For technical college graduates, job offers from manufacturers were dominant in the early years and 78.2% of graduates from these schools accepted jobs from manufacturers in 1970 (Table 34). Although this rate went down to below 50% in 1978 and 1979, it has been recovering in recent years and reached 62.0% in 1985. The increase in employment in service industries stands out clearly, the rate being only 0.8% in 1970 but steadily increasing since then to: 4.4% in 1975, 9.2% in 1980, and 12.7% in 1985.

Table 33
Percentage of Junior College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force (by industry; %)

Year	Construc-tion	Manu-facturing	Sales	Finance	Service	Public Service	Other
1970	2.1	23.2	13.2	13.4	37.2	4.1	6.8
1975	2.6	19.2	13.8	14.8	38.8	4.5	6.2
1980	2.6	18.0	15.3	12.9	38.7	6.3	6.2
1985	2.3	21.3	14.0	15.2	35.6	5.0	6.6
1987	2.4	16.1	16.5	16.9	37.9	4.6	5.6

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987.

Table 34
Percentage of Technical College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force (by industry; %)

Year	Construc-tion	Manu-facturing	Sales	Finance	Service	Public Service	Other
1970	9.8	78.2	2.0	-	0.8	2.1	7.1
1975	16.2	59.2	2.0	0.2	4.4	5.6	12.4
1980	16.2	51.6	4.6	0.2	9.2	6.6	11.6
1985	11.7	62.0	1.6	0.1	12.7	3.6	8.3
1987	10.4	63.4	1.4	0.1	13.5	2.9	8.3

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987.

Although no official statistics exist with respect to SG graduates by industrial classification, it is assumed that the number and rate of those employed in the respective sectors of manufacturing, wholesale, retail, and service industries resemble closely to those of junior college graduates.

4. Trends in Change of Standing and Type of Work of NUS Graduates

With respect to type of work, the employment situation for junior college graduates has experienced major changes in the last 15 years. In 1970, the number of junior college graduates employed for the first time was 81 thousand while the figure for university graduates was 162 thousand. In 1985, however, the number of junior college graduates taken into employment was 141 thousand while the figure for the university graduates was 373 thousand. Of the total

number of junior college graduates who were hired, 39.4% occupied the categories of expert or technical work at the beginning of the period, but this had decreased to 29.9% in 1985. (See Table 35) In contrast, those who were hired as clerical workers increased from 46.1% to 58.6% of the total over the same period. Such a change in type of work undertaken by junior college and SG graduates was a consequence of two factors: the sharp increase in the number of university graduates who directly entered the job market, and the decrease in the corresponding figure for high school graduates.

Table 35
Percentage of Junior College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force (by type of work; %)

Year	Professional/Engineer	Managerial	Clerical	Sales	Manual	Service	Other
1970	39.4	0.7	46.1	7.1	1.7	2.8	2.2
1975	38.4	0.3	51.5	3.7	1.7	2.2	2.2
1980	35.0	0.1	55.3	4.6	1.6	1.5	1.9
1985	29.9	0.1	58.6	6.6	1.7	1.5	1.6
1987	31.0	0.0	56.2	8.0	1.4	2.3	1.1

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987.

Table 36
Percentage of Technical College Graduates Who Entered the Labor Force (by type of work; %)

Year	Professional/Engineer	Managerial	Clerical	Sales	Manual	Service	Other
1970	98.2	-	0.0	0.3	-	0.1	0.4
1975	86.2	0.2	0.9	2.2	2.1	1.0	7.4
1980	77.5	0.0	3.3	4.3	5.3	3.0	6.6
1985	90.6	0.1	1.5	0.9	0.6	2.3	4.0
1987	93.1	0.1	1.0	0.3	0.1	0.3	5.1

Source: "Gakko Kihon Chosa Hokokusho; Report on School Basic Statistics" 1970-1987.

The employment situation by type of work for technical college graduates shows major changes reflecting business trends. While the percentage of those who were employed in expert or technical fields was 98.2% in 1970, it had dropped to 77.5% by 1980. (See Table 36) In the following years, those who were employed in expert or technical fields again increased, reaching 90.6% by 1985. The number of graduates from technical colleges who wanted to enter the labor force was 7,000, comprising only 1% of all new graduates in 1985.

5. Prospect of NUI Graduates in Job-Market

Newly graduated entrants to the Japanese job market may be roughly divided into seven major groups: those who complete graduate school, university graduates, junior college graduates, technical college graduates, SG graduates, high school graduates and junior high school graduates. During the period of high economic growth which started in the 1960s, junior high schools were the source of as high a volume of potential employees as high schools. As the percentage of junior high school graduates entering high school has risen in the following years, consideration of the question of those who look for jobs is no longer a real issue in terms of the recent job market. Despite the fact that those who enter the job market directly from high school are the greatest in number, society's interest in their employment problems has also declined as the trend toward longer term academic careers has become prevalent.

With respect to male students, no notable rivalry exists between technical colleges and SG, nor is there such a rivalry between universities and technical colleges. However, if the level required of a middle-level engineer changes in the future, it may be that NUI, which offer courses of two years or less in length, will no longer be in an advantageous position over universities.

For female students, junior colleges had demonstrated an absolute advantage over others until the early 1980s. When 2-year junior colleges and 4-year universities were compared, the junior colleges supplied younger female graduates, who were expected to stay in service for a longer period before their retirement by marriage, and for this reason, junior college graduates were favored.

The evaluation of junior college graduates began to change, however, when SG were founded in 1976 and their graduates started to be evaluated highly and

favorably accepted. SG graduates, on the whole, have been found to show stronger vocational motivation and work skills then junior college graduates.

Moreover, rapid progress in industry and an absolute shortage of good manpower caused industry to mainly employ 4-year university graduates. Junior colleges now face strong competition from SG, which offer the same length courses, and are also losing out in the competition with universities, so they now find themselves having to establish a new way forward.

6. Expectations Held by Policy Makers Toward NUS Graduates

It is expected by the policy makers that the shortage of man power, for example in data processing engineers, for example, can be covered by SG or the like. With respect to technical colleges where only industry-related courses are currently being offered, discussions are now being held about the addition of courses in other areas, such as business, foreign languages and fine arts. Because high schools are no longer expected to be a major source of manpower, employers tend to expect NUS institutions to be an alternative source of manpower even more than before. In spite of this, because private companies highly evaluate SG graduates with respect to their attitudes and motivation toward vocational careers compared with junior college graduates, junior colleges make efforts to establish a better career guidance system as more graduates enter and remain in the labor force in recent years.

7. The Effect of Labor Market on the NUS Institutions

The education provided by NUS institutions is mostly of a practical nature, and society regards this practicality in education favorably. Even in universities, especially in departments such as the faculty of engineering, where vocation-oriented education comprises an important element, teachers with practical experience are being actively sought. It is anticipated that the increasing numbers of those who have acquired practical knowledge and skills in national and local governments and private business will be hired to teach in NUS institutions.

It seems likely, also, that education and training which are presently provided within private companies will be conducted outside the companies and will be offered by both NUS institutions and universities. This will become a main trend.

Chapter 8

SOCIO-ECONOMIC ROLE OF THE NON-UNIVERSITY SECTOR

Ikuo AMANO[6]

1. Junior Colleges

Junior colleges were not established as the result of a thoroughly thought-out policy. As stated previously, junior colleges represent a system which was designed to temporarily provide higher education to supplement 4-year universities in the course of the reform of the educational system under the American Occupation of Japan. However, the provision of junior colleges played an important role in the expansion of higher education opportunities for women.

The first feature of junior colleges can be seen by studying the number of students enrolled in the different courses of study provided in junior colleges. In 1985, students studying in the fields of Domestic Science (26.7%), Humanities (22.1%), and Education (22.0%) totaled 71% in junior colleges, while students enrolled in industrial courses totaled only 5.3%. Junior colleges may be characterized as schools for domestic training. The second feature

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of junior colleges lies in the local character. Universities in Japan are concentrated in Tokyo and other large cities, but junior colleges are extremely decentralized, scattered throughout the provinces. This is largely due to the tendency for parents to hope that their daughters will enter higher educational institutions within reach of their home and will study for a short term at, thus, a lower expense to the parents. Another important feature is that 84% of these junior colleges are private colleges. Many of these private junior colleges boast of a good history and local tradition, have their origins in secondary educational institutions, and are established as annexes to women's colleges. The junior colleges of Japan were born and have developed with deep roots in the tradition of women's education.

2. SG

As described above, SG have their origins in the category of KG. After World War II, the mainstream of this category of school was represented by schools which taught the practical aspects of the knowledge and techniques required for professions and daily life. Such schools, which require no authorization from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, have become the most flexible and open places in the school education of Japan and provide many people with opportunities for practical education regardless of age or academic career. They are able to rapidly adjust to the birth of new occupations and changes in daily life.

At first, most of the people studying in KG were students who had completed compulsory education. But, as opportunities for secondary education in senior high schools have universally prevailed, KG have gradually placed more emphasis on the provision of educational courses for high school graduates, and, thus, taken on the character of postsecondary educational institutions since around the start of the 1970s.

The SG system which started in 1976 was based on the development of such KG and their transformation into postsecondary educational institutions. Many KG which were of a high standard have changed into SG and the number of students entering these new short-term higher educational institutions immediately after the graduation from senior high schools has increased. The first feature of SG is their focus on the vocations and semi-professions. Because SG, 88% of which are private schools, have less stringent governmental standards and regulations than junior colleges, they can provide educational

courses in various vocational fields and daily life in a more flexible way than junior colleges.

SG are, secondly, characterized by their concentration in cities. It is advantageous for SG, which are mainly composed of profit-making private schools and which place emphasis on education in highly specialized vocational areas, to be located in large cities from the viewpoints both of registration of students and of employment opportunities for graduates. When compared with junior colleges, a third feature of SG lies in the increase in the proportion of male students. In 1978, immediately after the inauguration of SG, the proportion of male students was only 34%, but this increased to 43% in 1985. In contrast to junior colleges, SG respond quickly to rapid changes in industrial and occupational structures. Although in their early stages KG and SG were catering mainly to female students, the character of SG as NUI has rapidly strengthened as the focus on the vocations for both male and female has increased.

3. Problems and Limitations

The first problem is that both of these types of institution are basically full-time educational institutions. A small number of junior colleges have night courses, but they have no courses for part-time students. Although SG have more night courses and courses for part-time students than junior colleges, most of them are increasingly changing to full-time day education as the number of students who enroll in them as soon as they graduate from senior high schools increases.

The second problem lies in the fact that neither type of educational institution provides a method of transferring students and graduates between universities and these institutions; mainly because, although such transfers are not prohibited by law, universities do not actively accept transfer students. In Japanese universities in general, students entering as a result of selective examinations independently set by universities, receive full-time education and almost all graduate after four years, with no students transferring from one university to another. Junior colleges and SG thus provide opportunities for entering higher level schools which are nothing but dead ends.

Thirdly, since the two types of educational institution mainly consist of private schools, the students themselves bear all the expenses required for education. Public junior colleges and SG also collect school fees. Some private

junior colleges and SG even charge school fees which are the same as or larger than those of private colleges.

Fourthly, it is inevitable that students of these types of educational institution find that opportunities for employment after graduation and their promotion in employment are unfavorable, when compared with graduates of universities. The social prestige of NUS institutions is collectively lower than that of universities. Some junior colleges and SG in large cities such as Tokyo certainly select students more strictly than some 4-year universities, and obtain evaluations which are equal to or higher than those of colleges with respect to opportunities for employment, and these schools have high prestige. But the number of such schools is very limited. Besides, the socio-economic backgrounds of graduates from junior colleges and SG are usually lower than those of colleges.

The most important problem of junior colleges and SG, relating to the first problem, is that they play extremely small parts as places where adults can learn about their future lives. Junior colleges developed as educational institutions developed for young women to enter upon graduation from senior high school. SG, when they were KG, accepted students regardless of age and academic career, and placed emphasis on part-time education, but they rapidly changed into full-time educational institutions for new graduates from senior high schools at about the time they were institutionalized as SG. Short-term higher education in Japan is collectively organized for young people and is weak with respect to programs for employed adults, particularly adults having a high level of education.

It is well known that Japanese companies have educational and training systems for their own workers that provide another form of adult education which is both well-equipped with necessary equipment and well organized. The scope of such training systems, however, depends upon scale, type of industry, and type of occupation; only large companies provide fine educational training programs that extend throughout their employees' lifetimes, corresponding to their occupations and their positions. These training programs are provided in a semi-compulsory manner as part of the comprehensive supervision imposed by companies. Thus such education has limitations as regards openness and equality of opportunity.

Short-term higher education has great problems concerning equality of opportunity in that the individual's share of the educational expenses is large and opportunities for education are not distributed evenly. In addition, it is

thought that those NUS institutions are trying to increase their social prestige by identifying their mission and function with those of colleges rather than by emphasizing their individuality and the differences in their mission and function from those of universities.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the two main types of NUS institution, junior colleges and SG, have had a strong impact on the development of Japanese postsecondary education. Junior colleges have provided female students with opportunities for receiving low-priced, local education, and SG have opened a way to provide opportunities for practical, widely-based vocaitional education, so that they play important roles as complements to the functions of universities. But, if the present system of short-term education in Japan is to meet the social and economic demands of the future as well, it is necessary to re-examine their relationship with universities, regional societies, industries, and adult students, and to create a new relationship on the basis of new ideas.

Chapter 9

SUMMARY AND PROSPECTS

Yoshiya ABE[7]

1. Summary

(A) Institutions of Postsecondary Education in Japan

The University Sector is comprised of 4-year universities, though a 6-year curriculum is required in medical, dentistry, and veterinary departments. In addition, graduate schools that comprise 2-year master courses and further 3-year doctoral courses are affiliated to some universities.

The NUS is comprised of junior colleges, SG, and technical colleges. The length of study in these institutions is mostly 2 years, but some of them offer 3-year courses. About a half of age cohorts who proceed to postsecondary education are admitted into the University Sector, while the remaining half advance to the NUS.

Junior colleges are evenly dispersed throughout the nation, and serve primarily the educational needs of women. Although most of their graduates are employed, the duration of employment in the case of female graduates tends to be short. At SG, there are almost an equal number of male and female

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students. The great majority of their graduates are employed by private companies, and their vocational abilities are regarded as relatively high. Technical colleges educate about one percent of postsecondary students who are almost all male; the majority of their graduates are employed as middle-level engineers in private companies.

The Third Sector covers KG and various institutions other than those postsecondary institutions covered by the "School Education Act". This includes: institutions of specialist education maintained by public sector authorities in order to train their middle-rank officials, such as the Defense Academy of the Defense Agency, the Tax College of the Ministry of Finance, the National Police Academy of the National Police Agency, vocational training centers established by the Ministry of Labor for the purpose of providing vocational training, in-house educational institutions of private companies for training their employees, and social institutions of lifetime education. None of these institutions are entitled to confer degrees on their students.

During the postwar years in Japan, universities were firmly established as the core of highly specialized basic education and research, while private companies provided in-house training consisting of specialized education with a practical orientation. The advancement of science and technology in recent years, their application to industry, and changes in industrial structure served, to widen the gap between the two. The NUS, thus, has been growing to fill this gap. SG, in particular, are the institutions most effectively performing such a function. SG basically originate from KG which were always a critical counterweight to the conventional school system, and established as a system with state authorization when their growth reached the threshold of approval backed by current social needs. In 1987, the number of 18-year-olds in Japan, the point at which secondary education gives way to higher education, was about 1.9 million, of which 90% were high school graduates. A little more than half of all high school graduates advanced to some type of postsecondary education. The number of students in the Third Sector, including those receiving short-term training, seems to be considerable and to be comparable to the number in the formal school system, though it is difficult to determine an exact figure.

(B) Potentiality of the Expansion of the NUS

The growth of higher education in Japan since World War II is attributed to: (1) a strong inclination toward education among the people, (2) the

governmental policy of trying to provide opportunities for higher education, and (3) the need for capable personnel in the modernization and industrialization of Japan. So far, the NUS has met all of these demands well. Whether the NUS will continue to expand depends on how well it will continue to meet these requirements.

An increase in the number of young people with qualifications and a desire to enjoy higher education will cause increasing social pressure (demand for education) upon universities and the NUS. It is expected that this will be especially intense in metropolitan areas. Although a policy aimed at reducing the concentration in metropolises has been adopted with respect to universities, such a measure is not being applied to SG; their future is expected to be very favorable particularly in metropolitan areas.

Since the level of education required by society in achieving modernization and industrialization has been gradually augmented, secondary education is regarded as inadequate in an increasing number of fields. This "pull-factor" is causing a tendency even in the service sector to seek NUS graduates instead of high school graduates on the grounds of the educational inadequacy of the latter; it seems probable that the NUS will act as the leader in bringing about universal postsecondary education.

(C) Social and Economic Developments and the NUS

Junior colleges and SG, the main forces within the NUS in quantitative terms, have been growing in response to substantial demand and are thus in line with market forces. The first distinction of junior colleges is apparent in the composition of their curricula fulfilling the educational needs of women. Although 80% of their new graduates are employed, the great majority leave work before reaching the age of 25 or so, in order to marry and become housewives. The second distinction is that junior colleges are dispersed throughout the nation, as parents have wished to provide opportunities for their daughters to attend postsecondary education while allowing them to live at home, courses being shorter and education costs thus being lower on both counts. This has contributed to women's postsecondary education spreading throughout the country.

In contrast, the first distinction of SG is their concentration upon vocation-oriented studies. Among the courses offered, those related to medicine, including nursing training, make up the largest segment, while those related to

manufacturing, bookkeeping and accounting, designing and the fashion industry are also abundant. The second distinction is their urban-based operations. The third distinction is the continuous increase in the percentage of male students, which was a third in 1978 and now comprises almost half the total.

Because both of these categories represent full-time educational institutions, and because their "customers" are students who have recently finished high school, there is a close relation between the size of this particular market and the population trends in the relevant area.

2. NUS's Superiority and Problems

(A) Employment and the NUS

Because the level of talent required by society has been raised and the skills in demand have become highly diversified, it is getting hard in some fields for high school graduates to obtain employment. Not only is the number of young people studying the fundamentals of computer engineering or data processing in universities and SG sharply increasing, but it is clear that the graduates of these courses are able to find employment very easily, fulfilling the needs of employers at various levels.

In the case of those who fail to get a job upon graduation from high school, advancing to a SG is becoming one of the potential options, while it is common for those who fail to be admitted to a university to enter a preparatory school. In particular, an increase in the number of students in the latter category is expected between now and the year 1992 since the number of 18-year-olds will sharply increase during this period.

With respect to junior colleges, though they are regarded as satisfying social needs to a fairly satisfactory extent, a mismatch between their courses and the needs of business and industry is beginning to be seen. On the other hand, SG's expansion and development in a diversified and flexible manner seems to have proven their inherent significance.

(B) Universities and the NUS

The critical problems associated with 4-year universities in the present system in Japan are first that an unevenly heavy financial burden on the majority of students who are enrolled in private universities, and second that their

concentration in metropolises is so conspicuous that about half of all university students are attending schools located in the Tokyo area alone. In regard to universities, a multiplicity of administrative directions are, therefore, being put into effect in order to face these problems politically. In addition, third that may be pointed out is the tendency for a lack of flexibility in responding to social needs, which is the reverse side of the coin from the viewpoint of academic freedom and faculty council autonomy.

Among the features of the NUS that reflect relative superiority as compared with the University Sector are: first, that the standards for establishment of a university, which can be a heavy financial burden, are not applied to the NUS, particularly to the SG; second, that they are not subject to administrative restrictions, particularly, the one prohibiting location in the metropolises; third, that it is possible for a founder who is sensitive to market forces and is strongly business-minded to execute managing power without facing self-protective opposition from a faculty council or the like; and fourth, that the shortness of the courses commonly offered by them matches the needs of students to find employment as soon as possible.

In the case of a private university establishing an NUI, effective use of staff and facilities is possible by shared use of resources. An opportunity to respond to diversified needs can be provided in such a combined structure. Although there is little systematic transfer of students and exchange of academic credits between newly established institutions and universities, an increasing number of university students are trying the so-called "double-schooling" approach, doubling up at a SG as the latter are more inclined to provide practical courses of study.

Notwithstanding these favorable aspects, the independent type of management associated with these institutions may result in a type of school operator emerging who prefers to look at financial rather than educational results, as compared with the conventional institutions of higher education.

(C) Functional Sharing among Postsecondary Educational Institutions

Universities in Japan have been emphasizing the importance of academic disciplines. Although the fields of science and technology have been viewed very seriously and expanded rapidly in national institutions since the end of the Second World War, educational emphasis has been placed in basic academic skills rather than in vocation-oriented training.

In the NUS, junior colleges have been the most important in promoting women's higher education, and are regarded as having provided an effective educational service to a certain segment of the market, upgrading the cultural basis of clerical work force and, more sustainingly, of the child rearing. While, though small in scale, technical colleges have provided so intensive and high quality professional training, that they are much more similar to Polytechnics in the U.K., or Fachhochschule in West Germany, rather than to community colleges in the U.S.A.

SG, on the other hand, are providing types of education that cannot possibly be offered by the universities, in fields that are closely related to occupations, such as language training, electronics, accounting, and design. This type of school is also very sensitive to trends in the job market.

Thus in Japan the principle of "segregation of niches" clearly exists between universities and NUS institutions; there is scarcely any tendency for the universities to extend their activities into the fields in which NUS and the Third Sector institutions specialize.

The Japanese institutions of the NUS and the Third Sector of postsecondary education in Japan are similar in function to community colleges in the U.S.A.; that is, junior colleges provide their students with academic courses similar to the general education courses. SG offer various vocational training courses. In addition, many KG and culture businesses in the Third Sector provide working youth and housewives with both lower level vocational and personal enrichment programs.

3. The Scope of the NUS in the Future

(A) Different Identities of the University Sector and the NUS

Each of those institutions in the University sector, the NUS and the Third Sector retains its own identity. Each institution pursues its own special goals, while each individual entrant looks at his own potential and needs, so that a matching process based on market forces takes place.

In employment, no rivalry between male graduates of SG and technical colleges has yet been observed, nor between either of these and males graduating from universities. This indicates that a type of segregation naturally occurs in accordance with the career objectives of the students.

With respect to women, though junior colleges had dominated until the early 1980s, the views of employers began to change as society started to appreciate the value of SG graduates because of their relatively well established vocational skills and work attitude. At the same time, it has become a common practice to bring the female graduates of universities into the labor market on the grounds of high specialization levels in industry and the absolute shortage of capable personnel.

Some operators of private universities are recognizing the significance of junior colleges and SG, and are establishing them together with their own universities on the basis of a single school body. Even in such cases, however, the school types are usually differentiated in organizational terms. That is, they coexist but no transfer of students between them is allowed, nor is the exchange of academic credits recognized.

(B) SG's Responsiveness to Social Developments

During the period of rapid growth (1960s and early 70s) that featured postwar Japan, junior high school graduates represented the main source of manpower. As the proportion of students advancing to senior high school increased sharply in the years following, very few students now leave after completing junior high school.

Thus, employment problems rarely occur at that point. Because of the trend toward extended education, the society's acceptance of those who seek work with only a high school diploma -- still numerous in overall terms -- is gradually but steadily falling.

In view of such socio-economic conditions, employers' evaluation of the NUS, whose role is to provide postsecondary education courses for shorter terms, will continue to validate the contribution of the NUS. NUI are responding to such socio-economic condition by providing educational opportunities that are needed by the consumers. The gap between the university places and high school leavers, quantitatively and qualitatively, is filled by preparatry schools; the gap between the skills demanded by employers and academic carricula of universities is filled by SG courses at which many university students attend as double-schooling students. What is lacking is the public acknowledgement of these endeavors by financial or taxational reward system for those who make their efforts on their own accounts.

(C) Establishing the Identity of the NUS in the Postsecondary Education Field

Research is an essential function of universities, in addition to the provision of high-level education. Society as a whole has been fully aware of both of these functions. However, Japanese universities have in many senses been regarded as less adequate in terms of serving the community than American universities. On the other hand, NUS have carried out their educational function with a particular eye to practicality, and their service function has been of great benefit to society, even though their research function counts for almost nothing, nor are they in any real sense recognized by society as research institutions.

There is certainly a movement in some quarters of the NUS to bring about assimilation with universities and thus to gain prestige equal to that of universities. Also, much energy seems to have been expended in responding to the extensive demands of society for manpower training by way of reinforcing the features the NUS already possesses. The identity of NUS institutions should thus be thought of as being largely attributable to their diversified and flexible character.

In order to cope with a more diversified society, postsecondary education system will probably have to be diversified as well. While retaining the university as a major part of the system of higher education, the diversified curricula seen in the NUS are thought to be a favorable trend to meet various educational needs of people and society.

Glossary

1. The University Sector

In Japan, the University Sector is composed primarily of 4-year universities.

Daigaku (University)

Universities require for admission the completion of upper secondary schooling or its equivalent, and offer, at undergraduate level, 4-year courses, with some exceptions in Medical and other departments, leading to a bachelor's degree. As of 1987, there were 474 universities in Japan.

A university may set up a graduate school offering advanced study in a variety of fields, leading to master's and doctor's degrees. More than half of the universities in Japan have set up graduate schools. The minimum length of a master's course is two years beyond the bachelor's course and that of a doctor's course, five years.

2. The Non-University Sector (NUS)

In the NUS in Japan, there are three types of institutions: junior colleges, Koto Senmon Gakko (technical colleges), and Senshu Gakko (SG; special training schools). Generally, these institutions offer 2-year or 3-year courses.

Tanki Daigaku (Junior College)

Junior colleges provide upper secondary school graduates with two- or three-year programs in different fields of study. As of 1987, there were 561 junior colleges. Most courses offered in these colleges are in the fields of the

humanities, social sciences, teacher training and home economics. The majority of the students in these colleges are women.

The credits acquired at junior colleges may be counted as part of the credits leading to a bachelor's degree. The junior college course of instruction lasts for two to three years, in contrast to four years or more in the case of universities. Certain subjects are classified as compulsory each school year, and optional courses are also offered. The number of credits necessary for graduation from junior colleges on a 2-year system is set at 62 credits or more.

Koto Senmon Gakko (Technical College)

Unlike universities or junior colleges, technical colleges require for admission only the completion of lower secondary schooling, and offer 5-year programs aimed at training technicians. The lower division (first, second and third years) of technical college is part of the secondary education system. This document, therefore, discusses only the upper division; the fourth and fifth years.

Technical colleges offer courses in Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Chemical Engineering, Industrial Chemistry, etc. Upon completion of the third year, students are able to acquire a qualification equivalent to graduation from higher secondary school, and the road is open for them to apply for university entrance examinations. In addition, another alternative open to technical colleges graduates is to enroll in the third year of a university course. Annually, a large number of technical college students enroll in one of the two national universities specializing in technology and science.

Technical colleges came into existence in 1962, and there were 62 colleges in May 1987.

Senshu Gakko (SG; Special Training Schools)

SG aim both at developing the students' abilities and skills required for working life or daily life, and at raising their level of general education. Each SG course gives at least 40 students systematic instruction, lasting at least one year, for the minimum number of class hours or more prescribed by the Minister of Education, Science and Culture.

In terms of the level of teaching provided, SG course may be classified into three types: the upper secondary course, the advanced or college course, and the general course. In their advanced courses, SG conduct education in the

manner of upper secondary school education. No particular restrictions are imposed on the educational curricula, apart from stipulating that the schooling period be set at one year or more, the total hours of lessons a year be set at least 800 hours, and approximately eight-tenths of the total lesson hours be allotted to the coverage of a basic course. Almost all of the curricula are directly linked to the granting of professional qualifications by the national government or the private sector or to meeting the qualifications which enable one to sit for the examinations thereof. As a result, various qualification systems impose restrictions on the SG curricula. An open admission system is generally adopted but, since graduation is conditional upon the acquisition of professional qualifications, requirements are strictly controlled once students are enrolled.

Only the advanced course requires for admission the completion of upper secondary schooling. In this document, therefore, we discuss the advanced course only under the acronym SG.

3. The Third Sector

In contrast to opportunities for education both in the University Sector and the NUS, which is strongly characterized by being an extension of school education, systematic opportunities for education which are strongly characterized by having elements of social education and whose object is to provide education and training, are called "continuing education".

Among such schools are academies and vocational training schools which are operated by national or local ministries and agencies, and which have as qualification for application the completion of secondary education, in terms of the level of applicant's academic standing. In general, these opportunities for education are of the nature that the education they provide is focused on a single purpose, in contrast with multi-purpose higher education.

This sector also includes Kakushu Gakko (KG; miscellaneous schools), which offer short-term practical courses for youth and adults. Although the opportunities for education in this sector are offered by institutions which are not legally under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (specifically, under the School Education Act), this sector is characterized by being able to cope directly with changes in social and personal supply and demand.

Kakushu Gakko(KG)(Miscellaneous Schools)

KG provide young people, primarily, with vocational and practical training in such fields as dressmaking, cooking, bookkeeping, typing, automobile driving and repair, use of computer, computer literacy, etc. Most courses in KG require for admission the completion of lower secondary schooling, while some courses require the completion of an upper secondary school course. The length of one course of instruction varies from three months, to one year or more.

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